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Atlas of United States Foreign Relations

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December 1985
(2d Edition)

United States Department of State
Bureau of Public Affairs
Washington, D.C.

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Atlas of United States Foreign Relations

United States Department of State
Bureau of Public Affairs
Office of Public Communication
Washington, D.C.

By Harry F. Young

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under the direction of Paul E. Auerswald

Preface

This atlas is designed to provide basic information about U.S. foreign relations. It was first published in 1983, and this is the second, revised edition. It consists of 90 displays, chiefly maps and charts, and is divided into six sections covering foreign relations machinery, international organizations, elements of the world economy, trade and investment, development assistance, and national security.

For the second edition, most of the displays have been revised or brought up to date, and some have been expanded or recast to reflect more recent developments. Most are based on data from official publications of the U.S. Government or international agencies. In a few cases unpublished government data were used. Sources cited on the displays generally refer to the sources of raw data used in devising maps and charts and not to the commentary. In most cases the data used are those available before midsummer 1985. On some subjects the latest reliable statistics do not go beyond 1980.

The illustration of foreign relations machinery is limited to the executive branch; no effort is made to depict the policymaking process, which involves Congress and the public as well as the President and the executive agencies. Nor is there any examination of the policies and internal affairs of other countries.

Country and place names generally follow the spellings and forms established by the U.S. Board on Geographic Names. Boundary representations on maps are not necessarily authoritative, and it should be noted that the United States does not recognize the incorporation of Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania into the Soviet Union. Moreover, no implications are to be drawn from these displays about U.S. policy on any current territorial issue. The annotations and interpretive comments should not be considered official policy statements of the Department of State or the U.S. Government.

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Foreign Relations Machinery

This section of the atlas describes the organization and facilities of the executive branch for the conduct of U.S. foreign relations. It is intended as background for the topics illustrated in the sections that follow.

The machinery of U.S. foreign relations is centered in the executive branch and has evolved from the constitutional responsibilities of the President. Under the Constitution the President has the authority to make treaties and appoint diplomatic and consular officials (with the advice and consent of the Senate), to receive foreign emissaries, and to exercise other authority provided by legislation. To assist the President in these duties, Congress in 1789 created the Department of State, replacing the Department of Foreign Affairs established in 1781. As head of the Department, the Secretary of State was made the President's principal adviser on foreign affairs and chiefly responsible for U.S. representation abroad. Consular and diplomatic systems also were established; originally separate, they were united in the Foreign Service of the United States in 1924.

The current machinery was developed after World War II. For more than 100 years after independence, the United States had played a small role in world political affairs. (Not until 1893 did the Republic begin to exchange ambassadors—rather than ministers-plenipotentiary, a lower rank—with the European Great Powers.) And after the peace conference ending World War I, where President Wilson had taken a leading part, the United States attempted to reduce its now extensive involvement in world affairs. World War II, however, thrust the United States into an unambiguous position of world leadership. The threat of Soviet expansion caused the United States to enter into military alliances with Atlantic and Pacific countries. To promote world trade and prosperity, the country embarked upon a program of foreign aid and international economic cooperation.

Global responsibilities required a more complicated foreign relations machinery. Employment in the Department of State rose from 6,000 in 1940 to 13,000 (500 under its present level) in 1960. The Departments of Agriculture, Commerce, and the Treasury acquired new duties in world economic affairs, the Department of Defense (created in 1947) in military aid and cooperation. There were new agencies placed under the general direction of the Secretary of State—the Arms Control and Disarmament Agency (1961), the Agency for International Development (1961, to conduct the principal foreign aid programs), the International Development Cooperation Agency (1979, to coordinate all foreign aid), and the United States Information Agency (1953, called the International Communication Agency from 1978 to 1982).

To help the President reach decisions on foreign policy and t coordinate the work of the many agencies involved, Congress passed the National Security Act of 1947 creating the National Security Council (NSC). Chaired by the President, the NSC includes the Vice President and the Secretaries of State and Defense as regular members. Each President has shaped NSC functions and made use of the position of Special Assistant to the President for National Security Affairs, established in 1951, to suit his own operational preferences.

pages tightly bound

Administration of U.S. Foreign Affairs

Foreign Affairs Branch	**Political Affairs** (general foreign policy and conduct of relations with foreign countries)	**Politico-Military Affairs** (mutual defense, strategic policy, arms control)	**International Commercial and Economic Affairs** (trade, investment, monetary affairs, foreign aid)	**Information and Educational and Cultural Exchange** (contact with foreign audiences through government media; promotion of people-to-people relations)	**Intelligence** (collection and analysis of information bearing on the conduct of foreign relations)
Departments and Agencies Involved		Department of Defense, Arms Control and Disarmament Agency	Departments of Agriculture, Commerce, Energy, Labor, Treasury; Export-Import Bank; International Trade Commission; Overseas Private Investment Corporation; U.S. Trade Representative; International Development and Cooperation Agency; Agency for International Development	United States Information Agency	Intelligence Community

Department of State

Responsibilities in all foreign affairs branches

Interagency Policy Coordination

National Security Council

Flexible system of interagency committees at various levels and of varying composition depending on subject matter

Constitutional Responsibility

President

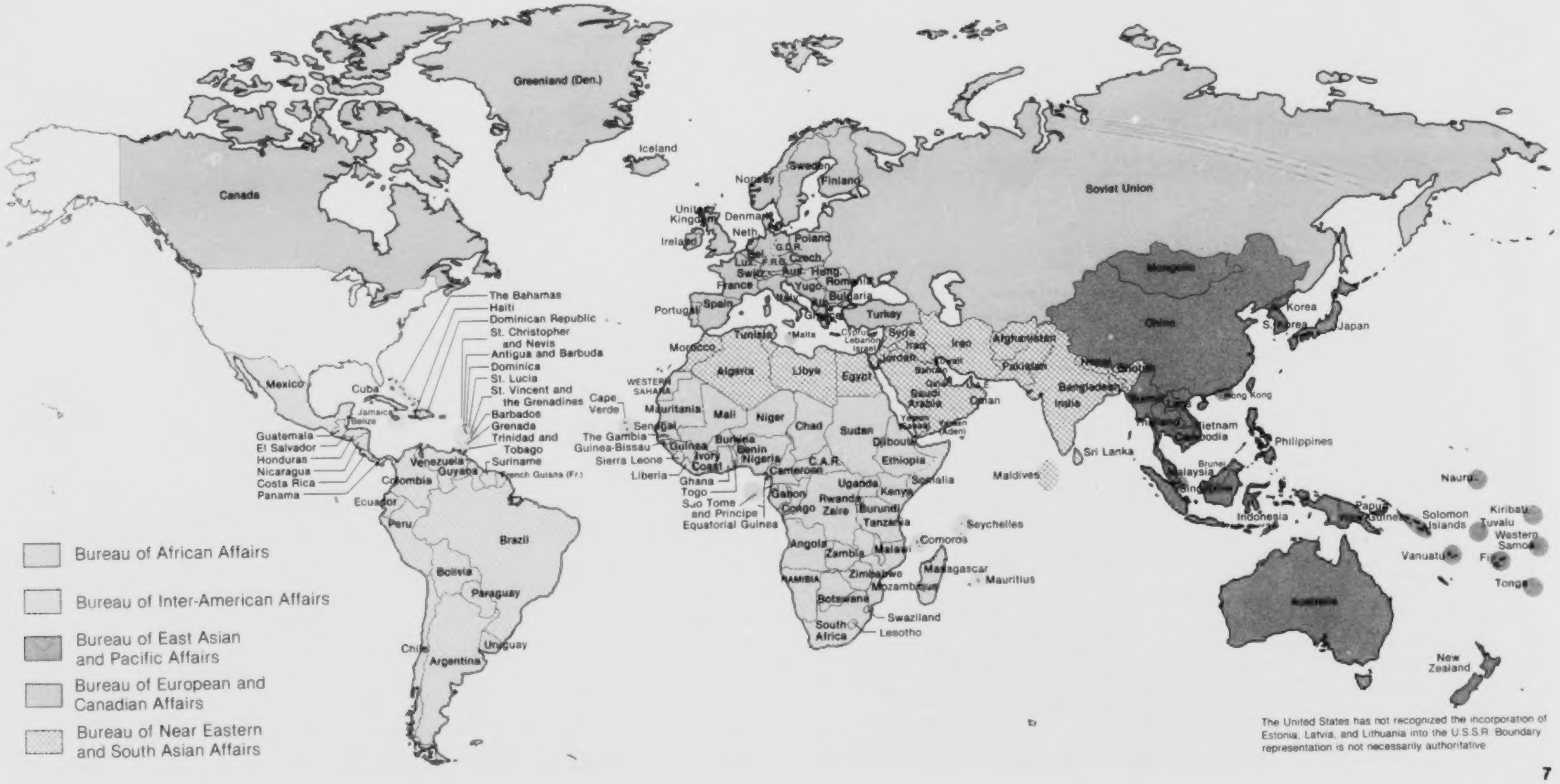
Head of Government/Head of State

Responsibilities in the Department of State

Duties	Leadership and overall direction	Policy development and coordination	Development of policy toward and conduct of relations with foreign countries and international organizations	Policy development and conduct of relations in special fields	Policy development in and conduct of consular affairs (passports, visas, citizens' services overseas)	Specialized support	Congressional, media, and public liaison	Management the Departme
Responsible Officers	Secretary of State Deputy Secretary of State	Under Secretaries for Political Affairs, Economic Affairs, and Security Assistance, Science and Technology Counselor of Department Director of Policy Planning Staff	Assistant Secretaries for (heads of bureaus of) African Affairs, Inter-American Affairs, East Asian and Pacific Affairs, European and Canadian Affairs, Near Eastern and South Asian Affairs, and International Organization Affairs	Assistant Secretaries for (heads of bureaus of) Economic and Business Affairs, Oceans and International Environmental and Scientific Affairs, International Narcotics Matters, and Human Rights and Humanitarian Affairs Directors of Bureau of International Communications and Information Policy, Bureau of Politico-Military Affairs, and Bureau for Refugee Programs	Assistant Secretary for Consular Affairs	Legal Adviser Director of Bureau of Intelligence and Research Chief of Protocol	Assistant Secretary for Legislative and Intergovernmental Affairs Assistant Secretary for Public Affairs and Spokesman of the Department	Under Secreta for Manageme Inspector General Assistant Secretary for Administration Assistant Secretary for Diplomatic Security Director General of the Foreign Servic and Director o Personnel Comptroller of the Departme Director of Management Operations

Areas Covered by Department of State Geographic Bureaus

To facilitate the conduct of business, the Department of State groups the countries of the world into regions, assigning each to the responsibility of a geographic bureau. This division is based on political and cultural factors as well as geographical proximity. Canada and Europe, for example, are combined in a single bureau because of Canada's historic ties to the United Kingdom and Western Europe.


Greenland (Den.)
Canada
Iceland
Mexico
Cuba
Jamaica
Belize
Guatemala
El Salvador
Honduras
Nicaragua
Costa Rica
Panama
The Bahamas
Haiti
Dominican Republic
St. Christopher and Nevis
Antigua and Barbuda
Dominica
St. Lucia
St. Vincent and the Grenadines
Barbados
Grenada
Trinidad and Tobago
Suriname
French Guiana (Fr.)
Venezuela
Guyana
Colombia
Ecuador
Peru
Brazil
Bolivia
Paraguay
Chile
Argentina
Uruguay
Norway
Sweden
Finland
United Kingdom
Denmark
Ireland
Neth.
Bel.
Lux.
G.D.R.
F.R.G.
Poland
Czech.
Switz.
Aus.
Hung.
France
Yugo.
Romania
Bulgaria
Italy
Alb.
Greece
Portugal
Spain
Turkey
Malta
Cyprus
Lebanon
Israel
Syria
Iraq
Iran
Jordan
Kuwait
Bahrain
Qatar
U.A.E.
Saudi Arabia
Oman
Yemen (Sanaa)
Yemen (Aden)
Afghanistan
Pakistan
Nepal
Bhutan
Bangladesh
India
Sri Lanka
Maldives
Soviet Union
Mongolia
China
Korea
S. Korea
Japan
Hong Kong
Burma
Laos
Thailand
Vietnam
Cambodia
Philippines
Brunei
Malaysia
Singapore
Indonesia
Papua New Guinea
Solomon Islands
Nauru
Kiribati
Tuvalu
Western Samoa
Vanuatu
Fiji
Tonga
Australia
New Zealand
Morocco
Tunisia
Algeria
Libya
Egypt
WESTERN SAHARA
Cape Verde
Mauritania
Mali
Niger
Chad
Sudan
Senegal
The Gambia
Guinea-Bissau
Guinea
Sierra Leone
Liberia
Ivory Coast
Burkina
Benin
Nigeria
Ghana
Togo
Sao Tome and Principe
Equatorial Guinea
Cameroon
C.A.R.
Djibouti
Ethiopia
Somalia
Uganda
Kenya
Gabon
Congo
Rwanda
Zaire
Burundi
Tanzania
Seychelles
Comoros
Angola
Zambia
Malawi
NAMIBIA
Zimbabwe
Mozambique
Madagascar
Mauritius
Botswana
Swaziland
South Africa
Lesotho
☐ Bureau of African Affairs
☐ Bureau of Inter-American Affairs
▨ Bureau of East Asian and Pacific Affairs
▨ Bureau of European and Canadian Affairs
▨ Bureau of Near Eastern and South Asian Affairs

The United States has not recognized the incorporation of Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania into the U.S.S.R. Boundary representation is not necessarily authoritative.

Diplomatic and Consular Representation

The United States normally accredits an ambassador (or a chief of mission of lesser rank) to each country with which the United States has diplomatic relations. In May 1985 the number of countries to which the United States had an accredited diplomatic mission was 153. Contacts with Bhutan, Maldives, and Vanuatu are maintained through embassies in neighboring countries or at the United Nations.

The United States has no diplomatic relations with Albania, Angola, Cambodia, Cuba, Iran, Mongolia, North Korea, Vietnam, and Yemen (Aden). In Cuba the United States maintains a U.S. Interests Section in the Swiss Embassy. All U.S. Embassy activities in Libya were suspended and U.S. personnel were withdrawn on May 2, 1980, but relations were not severed.

Consular posts provide various services for Americans in foreign countries and issue visas to foreigners for travel to the United States. Each embassy has a consular section, and there are separate consular facilities (see map).

Other Permanent U.S. Foreign Service Posts

U.S. Mission to the United Nations (New York)

U.S. Mission to the European Office of the United Nations and other International Organizations (Geneva)

Permanent U.S. Mission to the Organization of American States (Washington, D.C.)

U.S. Mission to Berlin

U.S. Mission to the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (Brussels)

U.S. Mission to the UN Agencies for Food and Agriculture (Rome)

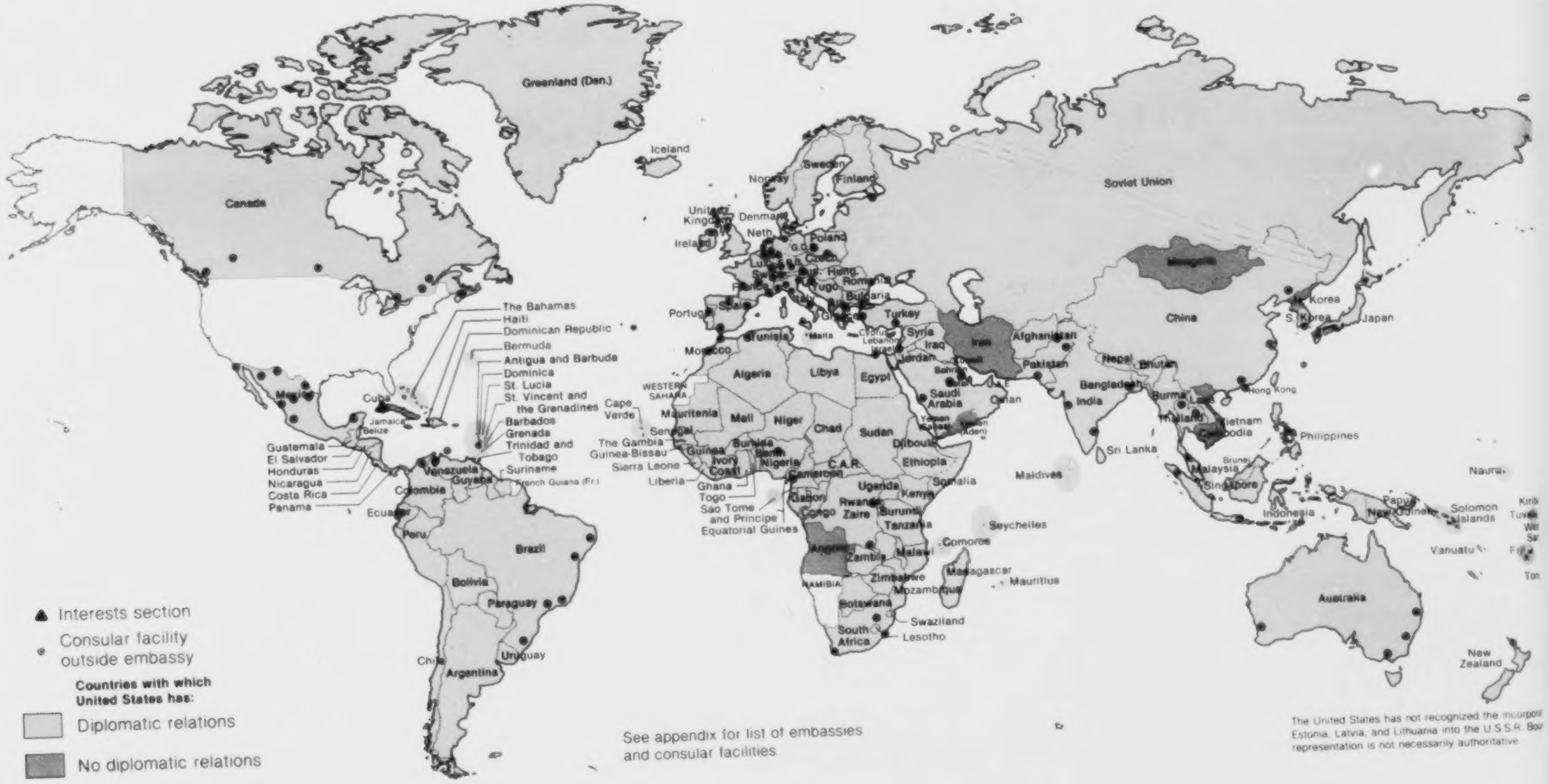
U.S. Mission to the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Developmen (Paris)

U.S. Mission to the European Communitie (Brussels)

U.S. Mission to International Organization in Vienna

U.S. Mission to the International Civil Aviation Organization (Montreal)

U.S. Observer Mission to the UN Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (Paris)


▲ Interests section
● Consular facility outside embassy
Countries with which United States has:
▢ Diplomatic relations
▨ No diplomatic relations
Greenland (Den.)
Canada
Iceland
Norway
Sweden
Finland
United Kingdom
Ireland
Denmark
Neth.
Poland
G.D.R.
Czech.
Lux.
F.R.G.
Switz.
Aus.
Hung.
Romania
Yugo.
Bulgaria
France
Spain
Portugal
Italy
Greece
Turkey
Malta
Cyprus
Lebanon
Israel
Syria
Iraq
Jordan
Iran
Kuwait
Bahrain
Qatar
U.A.E.
Saudi Arabia
Oman
Yemen (Sanaa)
Yemen (Aden)
Afghanistan
Pakistan
Nepal
Bhutan
Bangladesh
India
Sri Lanka
Maldives
Soviet Union
Mongolia
China
Korea
S. Korea
Japan
Hong Kong
Burma
Laos
Thailand
Vietnam
Cambodia
Philippines
Malaysia
Brunei
Singapore
Indonesia
Papua New Guinea
Solomon Islands
Nauru
Vanuatu
Australia
New Zealand
Morocco
Tunisia
Algeria
Libya
Egypt
WESTERN SAHARA
Mauritania
Mali
Niger
Chad
Sudan
Cape Verde
Senegal
The Gambia
Guinea-Bissau
Guinea
Sierra Leone
Liberia
Ivory Coast
Burkina
Benin
Nigeria
Ghana
Togo
Sao Tome and Principe
Equatorial Guinea
Cameroon
C.A.R.
Gabon
Congo
Zaire
Rwanda
Burundi
Uganda
Kenya
Tanzania
Djibouti
Ethiopia
Somalia
Seychelles
Comoros
Angola
Zambia
Malawi
Zimbabwe
Mozambique
Madagascar
Mauritius
NAMIBIA
Botswana
South Africa
Swaziland
Lesotho
The Bahamas
Haiti
Dominican Republic
Bermuda
Antigua and Barbuda
Dominica
St. Lucia
St. Vincent and the Grenadines
Barbados
Grenada
Trinidad and Tobago
Suriname
French Guiana (Fr.)
Mexico
Cuba
Jamaica
Belize
Guatemala
El Salvador
Honduras
Nicaragua
Costa Rica
Panama
Venezuela
Guyana
Colombia
Ecuador
Peru
Brazil
Bolivia
Paraguay
Chile
Argentina
Uruguay

See appendix for list of embassies and consular facilities

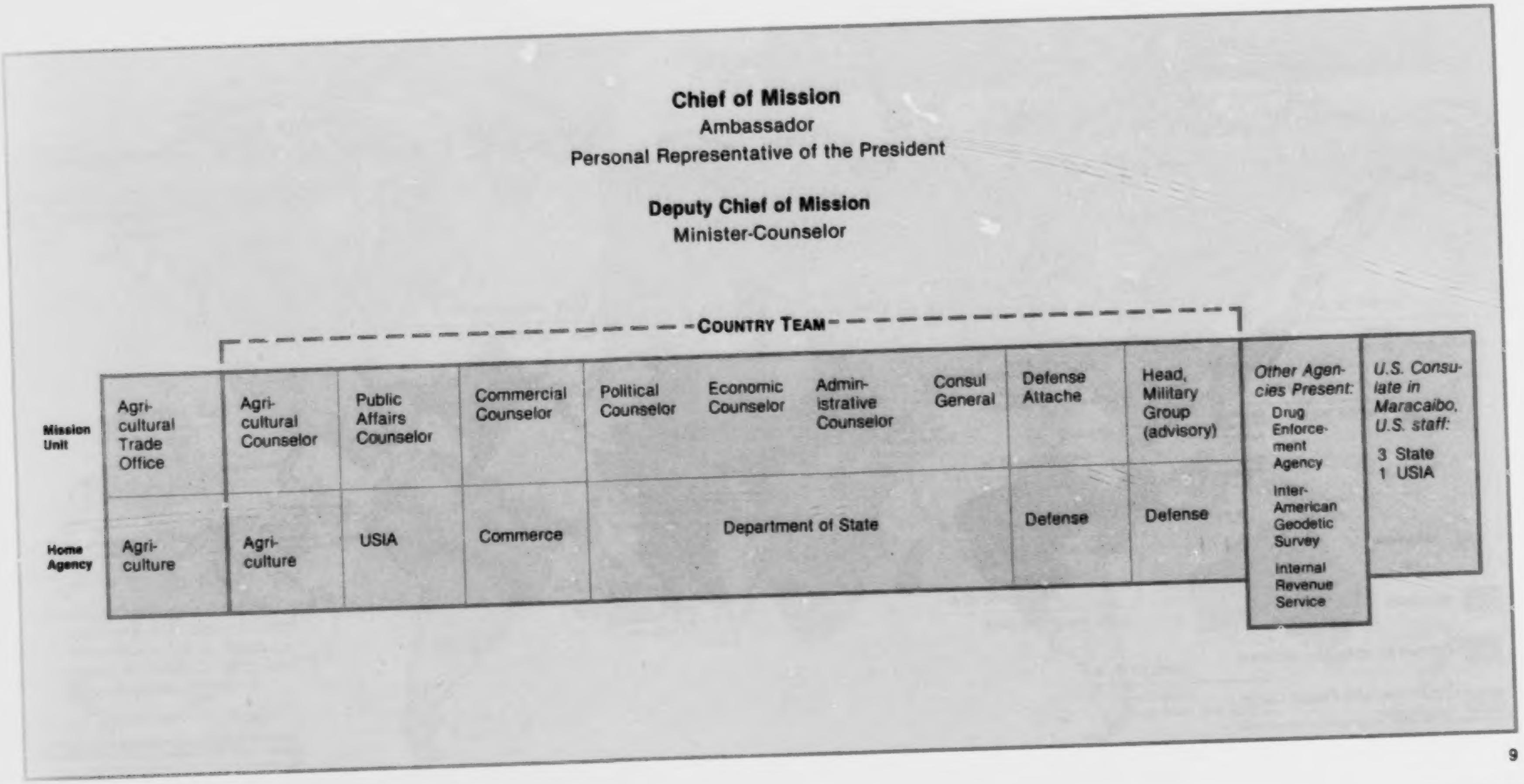
The United States has not recognized the incorpo Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania into the U.S.S.R. Bou representation is not necessarily authoritative

A U.S. Mission in a Foreign Country—Venezuela

A U.S. mission in a foreign country is classified as an embassy if the permanent chief of mission has the rank of ambassador. U.S. embassies usually consist of political, economic, consular, and administrative sections staffed by members of the Foreign Service and the Department of State and, depending on need, of specialized sections employing personnel from other departments and agencies. The Foreign Commercial Service of the Department of Commerce is responsible for commercial program activity in 66 countries, and the Foreign Agricultural Service of the Department of Agriculture has officers posted at embassies in nearly 40 countries.

The ambassador is the personal representative of the President. He or she must represent U.S. policy to the host government and coordinate and integrate the activities of all U.S. personnel in the host country (with the exception of military personnel under area command). The ambassador is assisted in these duties by the country team comprising the heads of the various embassy elements. The ambassador reports to the President and receives instructions through the Secretary of State.

In June 1985 there were 108 Americans employed in the Embassy and other offices in Caracas, Venezuela, and the consulate in Maracaibo. By comparison, the U.S. staff at the Embassy in London numbered 266, and in Brazzaville, People's Republic of the Congo, 21. Most of the Americans assigned to the mission in Venezuela were members of the Foreign Service. There were about 30 civilian and military employees of the Department of Defense.

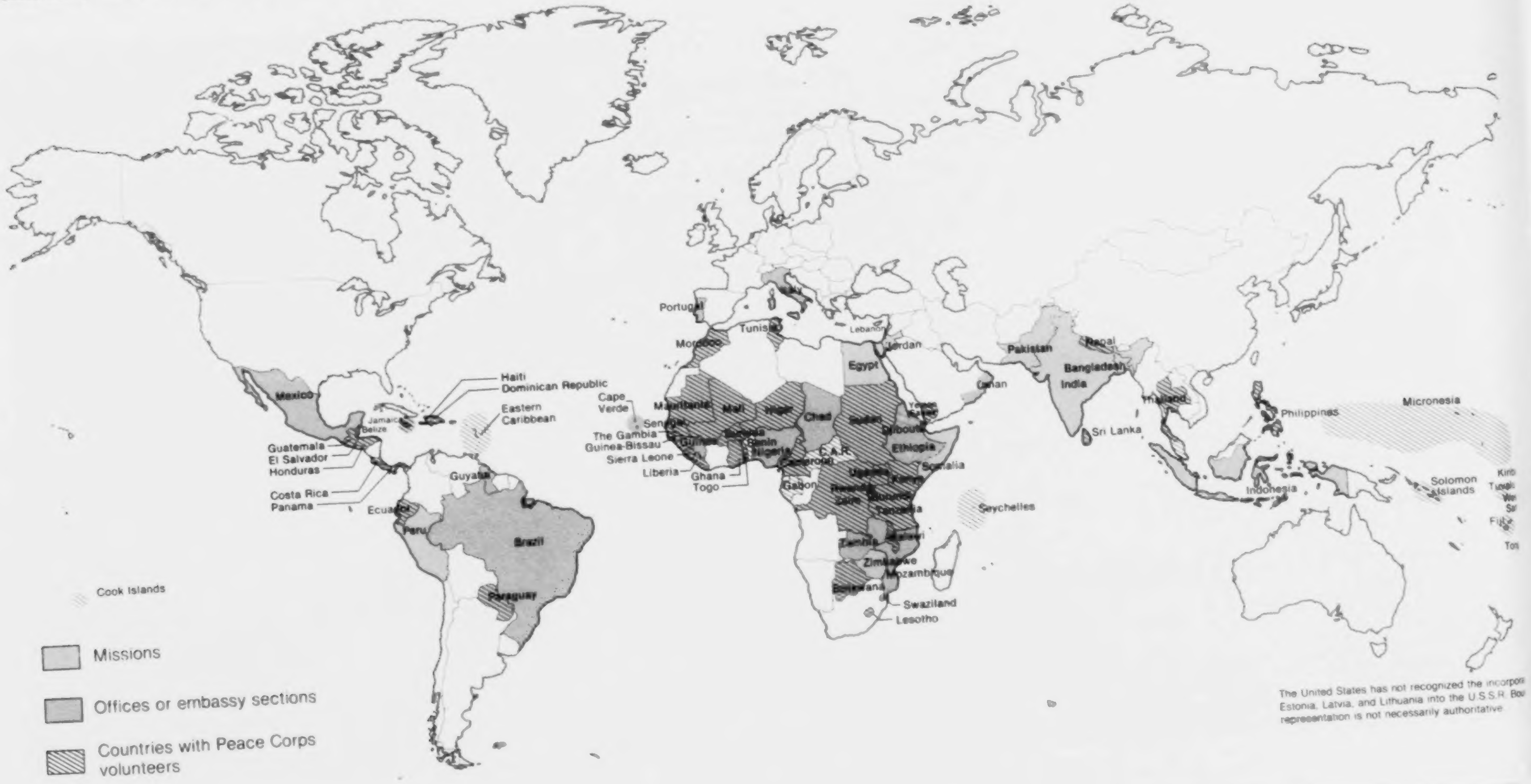

Chief of Mission
Ambassador
Personal Representative of the President
Deputy Chief of Mission
Minister-Counselor
Country Team
Mission Unit
Home Agency
Agricultural Trade Office
Agriculture
Agricultural Counselor
Agriculture
Public Affairs Counselor
USIA
Commercial Counselor
Commerce
Political Counselor
Economic Counselor
Administrative Counselor
Consul General
Department of State
Defense Attache
Defense
Head, Military Group (advisory)
Defense
Other Agencies Present:
Drug Enforcement Agency
Inter-American Geodetic Survey
Internal Revenue Service
U.S. Consulate in Maracaibo, U.S. staff:
3 State
1 USIA

AID and Peace Corps Representation Overseas

The Agency for International Development (AID) is responsible for the major U.S. foreign economic aid programs—loans, grants, and technical assistance to help poorer countries raise their standard of living and share in world economic progress. AID also administers the Economic Support Fund providing grants and loans to countries of special political or security interest to the United States.

AID had permanent representation in most of the 88 countries receiving U.S. economic assistance in 1984. Representation is in the form of AID Missions (headed by a director), AID Offices, or AID embassy sections, depending on the level or complexity of the assistance program. AID also maintained regional offices for East Africa, West Africa, Central America, the Caribbean, and the South Pacific.

The Peace Corps is a people-to-people program providing American volunteers to developing countries chiefly to help them meet basic human needs in the poorest areas. At the end of 1984 there were nearly 5,500 Peace Corps volunteers taking part in self-help development projects in 60 countries.

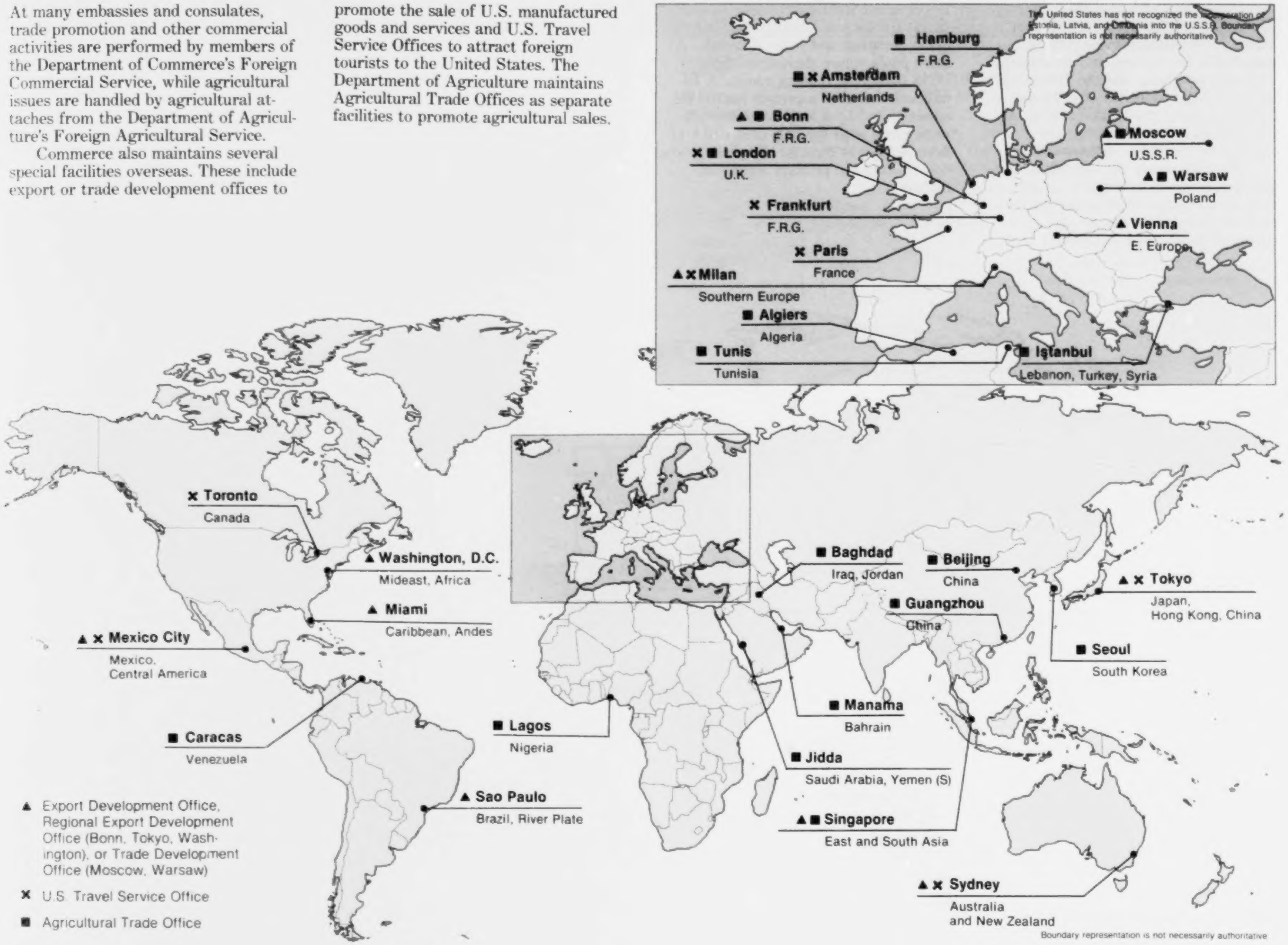

Mexico
Jamaica
Belize
Haiti
Dominican Republic
Eastern Caribbean
Guatemala
El Salvador
Honduras
Costa Rica
Panama
Guyana
Ecuador
Peru
Brazil
Paraguay
Cook Islands
Portugal
Morocco
Tunisia
Lebanon
Jordan
Egypt
Cape Verde
Mauritania
Mali
Niger
Chad
Sudan
Senegal
The Gambia
Guinea-Bissau
Sierra Leone
Liberia
Ghana
Togo
Benin
Nigeria
Cameroon
C.A.R.
Gabon
Djibouti
Ethiopia
Somalia
Tanzania
Zambia
Malawi
Zimbabwe
Mozambique
Botswana
Swaziland
Lesotho
Seychelles
Oman
Yemen
Pakistan
Nepal
Bangladesh
India
Sri Lanka
Thailand
Philippines
Micronesia
Indonesia
Solomon Islands
Missions
Offices or embassy sections
Countries with Peace Corps volunteers

The United States has not recognized the incorpo
Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania into the U.S.S.R. Bou
representation is not necessarily authoritative.

Trade Promotion Offices Abroad

At many embassies and consulates, trade promotion and other commercial activities are performed by members of the Department of Commerce's Foreign Commercial Service, while agricultural issues are handled by agricultural attaches from the Department of Agriculture's Foreign Agricultural Service.

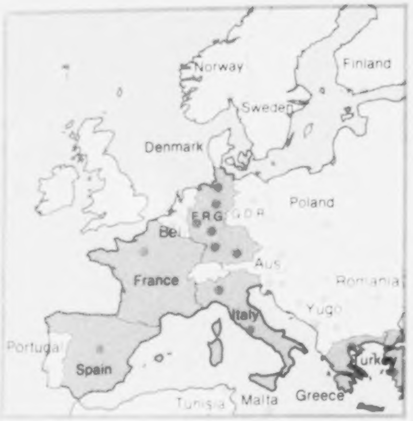
Commerce also maintains several special facilities overseas. These include export or trade development offices to promote the sale of U.S. manufactured goods and services and U.S. Travel Service Offices to attract foreign tourists to the United States. The Department of Agriculture maintains Agricultural Trade Offices as separate facilities to promote agricultural sales.


The United States has not recognized the incorporation of Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania into the U.S.S.R. Boundary representation is not necessarily authoritative.
■ Hamburg
F.R.G.
■ x Amsterdam
Netherlands
▲ ■ Bonn
F.R.G.
x ■ London
U.K.
x Frankfurt
F.R.G.
x Paris
France
▲ x Milan
Southern Europe
■ Algiers
Algeria
■ Tunis
Tunisia
▲ ■ Moscow
U.S.S.R.
▲ ■ Warsaw
Poland
▲ Vienna
E. Europe
■ Istanbul
Lebanon, Turkey, Syria
x Toronto
Canada
▲ Washington, D.C.
Mideast, Africa
▲ Miami
Caribbean, Andes
▲ x Mexico City
Mexico,
Central America
■ Caracas
Venezuela
■ Lagos
Nigeria
▲ Sao Paulo
Brazil, River Plate
■ Baghdad
Iraq, Jordan
■ Beijing
China
■ Guangzhou
China
▲ x Tokyo
Japan,
Hong Kong, China
■ Seoul
South Korea
■ Manama
Bahrain
■ Jidda
Saudi Arabia, Yemen (S)
▲ ■ Singapore
East and South Asia
▲ x Sydney
Australia
and New Zealand
▲ Export Development Office, Regional Export Development Office (Bonn, Tokyo, Washington), or Trade Development Office (Moscow, Warsaw)
x U.S. Travel Service Office
■ Agricultural Trade Office
Boundary representation is not necessarily authoritative

Information and Cultural Exchange Centers

The United States Information Agency (USIA), known abroad as the United States Information Service (USIS), is responsible for cultural and educational exchange programs and the dissemination in foreign countries of news and information about the United States. At U.S. missions these activities are directed by the Public Affairs Officer.

This map shows the location of two different kinds of facilities designed to promote exchange of ideas and better understanding of American life. An American Center is a permanent U.S. Government facility providing (in many cases) a library as well as space for exhibits, lectures, and other activities. At some posts where there is no center, USIS maintains reading rooms. A Binational Center is a private institution administered by a local committee, in some cases with the help of a USIA officer serving as director. English instruction is often the primary source of income.


Norway
Finland
Sweden
Denmark
Poland
F.R.G.
G.D.R.
Bel.
Aus.
France
Romania
Yugo.
Italy
Portugal
Spain
Turkey
Tunisia
Malta
Greece

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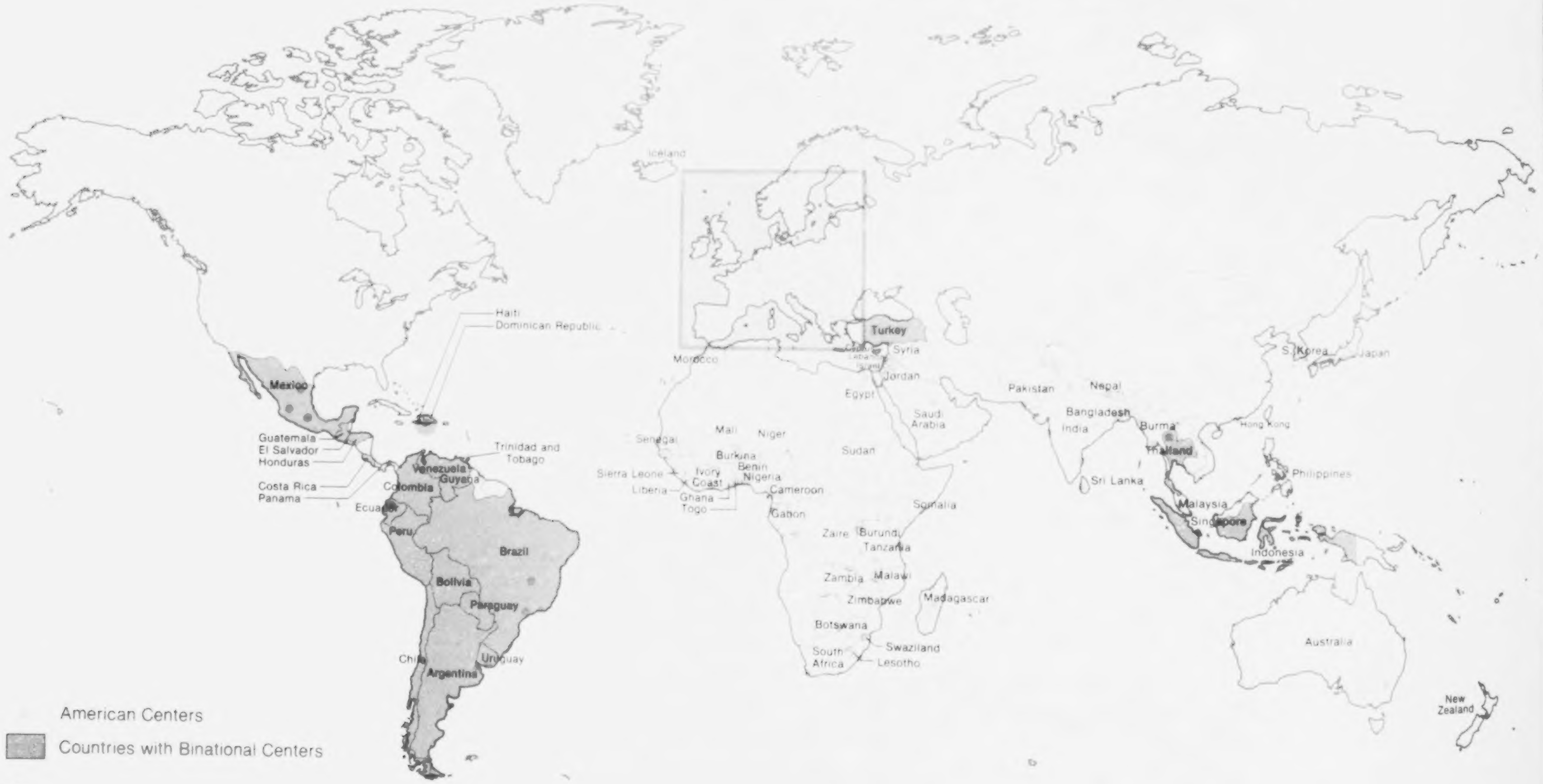

Iceland
Haiti
Dominican Republic
Mexico
Guatemala
El Salvador
Honduras
Costa Rica
Panama
Trinidad and Tobago
Venezuela
Guyana
Colombia
Ecuador
Peru
Brazil
Bolivia
Paraguay
Chile
Uruguay
Argentina
Morocco
Turkey
Syria
Lebanon
Israel
Jordan
Egypt
Saudi Arabia
Senegal
Mali
Niger
Burkina
Benin
Nigeria
Sierra Leone
Liberia
Ivory Coast
Ghana
Togo
Cameroon
Gabon
Sudan
Somalia
Zaire
Burundi
Tanzania
Zambia
Malawi
Zimbabwe
Madagascar
Botswana
South Africa
Swaziland
Lesotho
Pakistan
Nepal
Bangladesh
India
Sri Lanka
Burma
Thailand
Hong Kong
Philippines
Malaysia
Singapore
Indonesia
S. Korea
Japan
Australia
New Zealand
American Centers
▨ Countries with Binational Centers

USIA Periodicals Distributed Abroad

International Distribution

Dialogue. Illustrated intellectual quarterly with articles from U.S. publications: 230,000 in 13 languages.

Economic Impact. Quarterly on U.S. economy: 48,000 in English; 17,000 in Spanish; 5,000 in Portuguese.

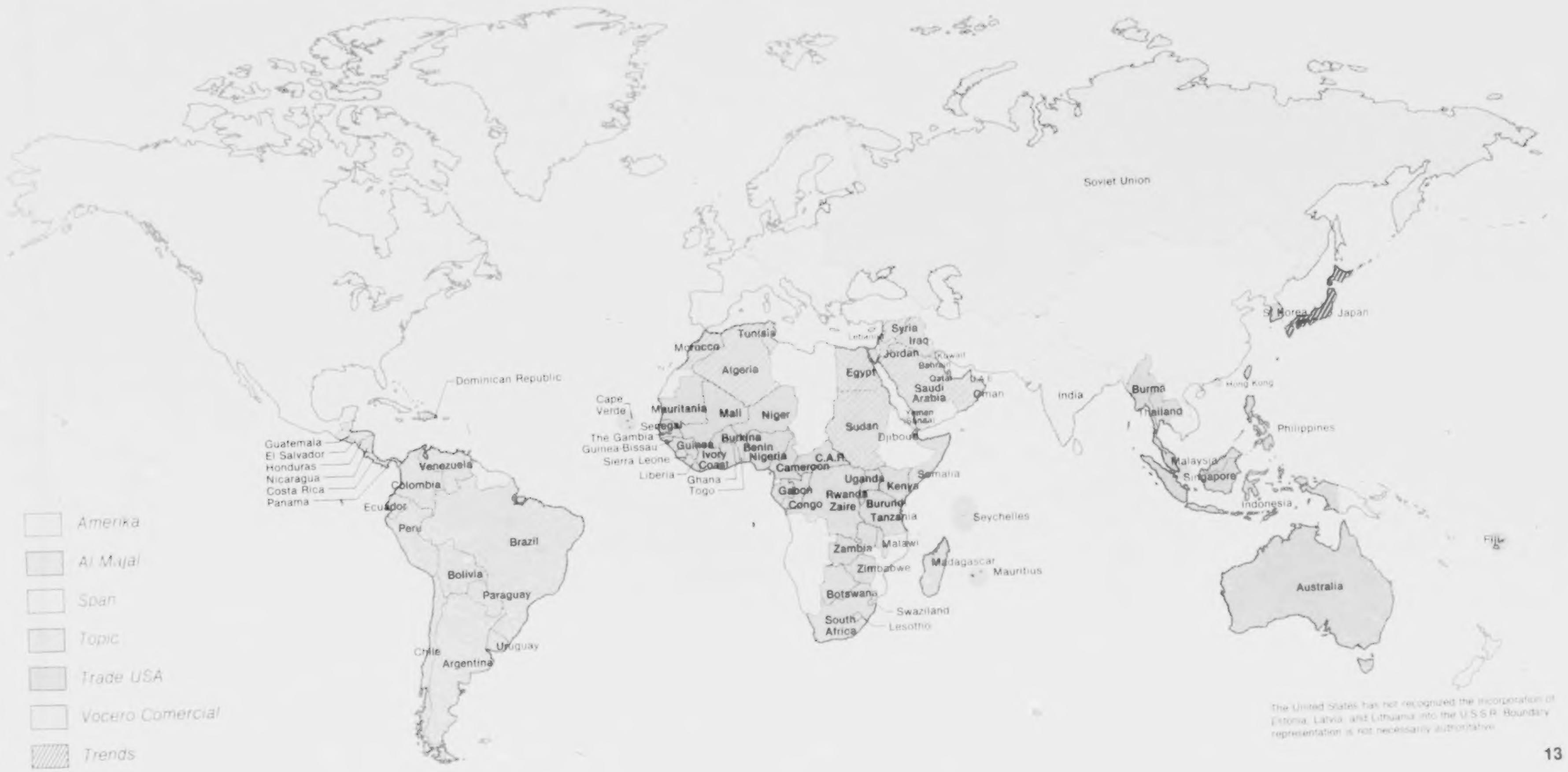
Problems of Communism. Bimonthly, scholarly: 29,000 in English; 5,000 in Spanish. Congress authorizes additional 6,000 copies for U.S. distribution.

English-Teaching Forum. Quarterly journal on teaching English as a foreign language: 110,000 copies distributed overseas. Congress authorizes U.S. distribution.

Distribution in Specific Country or Region

Periodical	Country/Region	Style/Content	Circulation/Language
Amerika	U.S.S.R.	Illustrated articles on U.S. life	62,000 (Russian)
Al Majal	Arab countries	International subjects, economic, Mideast, U.S. life	19,000 (Arabic)
Span	India	Articles and reprints on U.S. life, U.S.-Indian relations	78,000 (English)
Topic	Sub-Saharan Africa	U.S. life, U.S. policy and aid for Africa	34,000 (English); 17,000 (French)
Trade USA	East and Southeast Asia	Trade opportunities	17,000 (English)
Vocero Comercial	Latin America	Same as *Trade USA*	22,000 (Spanish and Portuguese)
Trends	Japan	U.S.-Japanese relations, culture	16,000 (Japanese)

(continued)


Soviet Union
Dominican Republic
Guatemala
El Salvador
Honduras
Nicaragua
Costa Rica
Panama
Venezuela
Colombia
Ecuador
Peru
Brazil
Bolivia
Paraguay
Chile
Argentina
Uruguay
Cape Verde
Senegal
The Gambia
Guinea-Bissau
Sierra Leone
Liberia
Ghana
Togo
Morocco
Tunisia
Algeria
Mauritania
Mali
Niger
Guinea
Burkina
Benin
Ivory Coast
Nigeria
Cameroon
C.A.R.
Gabon
Congo
Lebanon
Syria
Iraq
Jordan
Kuwait
Bahrain
Qatar
U.A.E.
Egypt
Saudi Arabia
Oman
Yemen
Sudan
Djibouti
Somalia
Uganda
Kenya
Rwanda
Zaire
Burundi
Tanzania
Seychelles
Zambia
Malawi
Zimbabwe
Madagascar
Mauritius
Botswana
Swaziland
South Africa
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India
Burma
Thailand
Hong Kong
S. Korea
Japan
Philippines
Malaysia
Singapore
Indonesia
Fiji
Australia
Amerika
Al Majal
Span
Topic
Trade USA
Vocero Comercial
Trends

The United States has not recognized the incorporation of Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania into the U.S.S.R. Boundary representation is not necessarily authoritative.

U.S. Government International Broadcasting

Since World War I, when governments first began to use the radio to speak directly to the people of a foreign country, international broadcasting has become a standard supplement to conventional diplomacy. In 1984, 21 governments had external radio services broadcasting more than 300 hours a week. The three largest international broadcasters are the U.S.S.R. (2,167 hours a week in 81 languages), the United States (2,033 hours in 48 languages), and the People's Republic of China (1,417 hours in 43 languages). The following are U.S. broadcasting facilities:

Voice of America (VOA), the official voice of the U.S. Government, sending news, cultural, and entertainment programs to every part of the world (with emphasis on the U.S.S.R.). The United States Information Agency estimates that more than 120 million adults listen to VOA at least once a week, including more than 32 million Soviet citizens;

Radio Liberty broadcasting from West Germany to the U.S.S.R.;

Radio Free Europe broadcasting from West Germany to Eastern Europe;

RIAS (*Radio im amerikanischen Sektor*), broadcasting in German from West Berlin.

Languages Used by U.S. Broadcasting Services

Worldwide: VOA has a worldwide English service as well as special English programs for sub-Saharan Africa.

Sub-Saharan Africa: Amharic, English, French, Hausa, Portuguese, Swahili.

Arab Countries: Arabic.

East Asia: Burmese, Indonesian, Khmer, Korean, Lao, Thai, Vietnamese.

South Asia: Bengali, Dari, Farsi, Hindi, Pashto, Urdu.

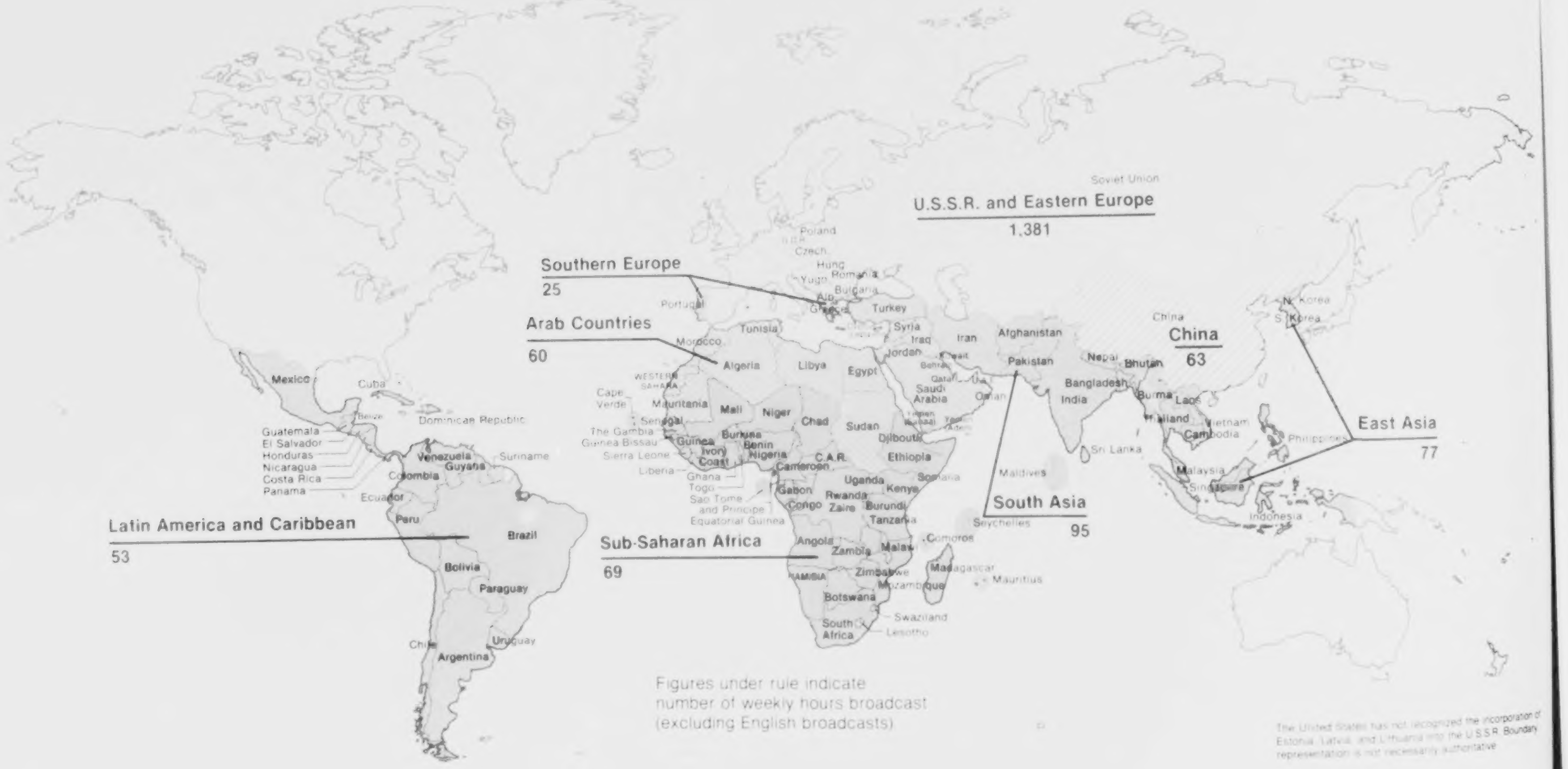
China: Mandarin.

Eastern Europe: Albanian, Bulgarian, Czech, Estonian, German, Hungarian, Latvian, Lithuanian, Polish, Romanian, Serbo-Croatian, Slovak, Slovene.

Southern Europe: Greek, Turkish, Portuguese.

Latin America: Portuguese, Spanish.

U.S.S.R.: Armenian, Azeri, Georgian, Kazakh, Kirghiz, Russian, Tadzhik, Tatar-Bashkir, Turkmen, Ukrainian, Uzbek.


Soviet Union
U.S.S.R. and Eastern Europe
1,381
Southern Europe
25
Arab Countries
60
Latin America and Caribbean
53
Sub-Saharan Africa
69
South Asia
95
China
63
East Asia
77
Poland
Czech
Hung
Yugo
Romania
Bulgaria
Alb
Greece
Turkey
Portugal
Tunisia
Morocco
Algeria
Libya
Egypt
Syria
Iraq
Iran
Jordan
Kuwait
Bahrain
Qatar
U.A.E.
Saudi Arabia
Oman
Yemen
Afghanistan
Pakistan
Nepal
Bhutan
Bangladesh
India
Sri Lanka
Maldives
Burma
Laos
Thailand
Vietnam
Cambodia
Philippines
Malaysia
Singapore
Indonesia
N. Korea
S. Korea
China
Western Sahara
Cape Verde
Mauritania
Mali
Niger
Chad
Sudan
Senegal
The Gambia
Guinea Bissau
Guinea
Sierra Leone
Liberia
Ivory Coast
Ghana
Togo
Burkina
Benin
Nigeria
Sao Tome and Principe
Equatorial Guinea
Cameroon
C.A.R.
Djibouti
Ethiopia
Somalia
Uganda
Kenya
Gabon
Congo
Rwanda
Zaire
Burundi
Tanzania
Seychelles
Comoros
Angola
Zambia
Malawi
Namibia
Zimbabwe
Mozambique
Madagascar
Mauritius
Botswana
South Africa
Swaziland
Lesotho
Mexico
Cuba
Belize
Dominican Republic
Guatemala
El Salvador
Honduras
Nicaragua
Costa Rica
Panama
Venezuela
Guyana
Suriname
Colombia
Ecuador
Peru
Brazil
Bolivia
Paraguay
Chile
Argentina
Uruguay

Figures under rule indicate number of weekly hours broadcast (excluding English broadcasts).

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Foreign Affairs Costs and Personnel

Outlays, FY 1984 ($ billions)

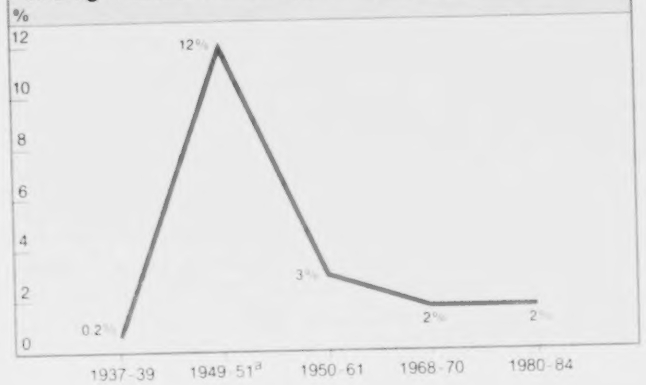
Total Federal Government	852.0
Total Foreign Affairs[1]	16.0
Foreign Aid	12.0
Foreign Affairs Administration[2]	2.0
International Financial Programs	0.9
Foreign Information and Exchanges	0.7
Other	0.4

[1] Includes total outlays of the Department of State, Agency for International Development (AID), Export-Import Bank (Eximbank), International Trade Commission (ITC), National Security Council (NSC), Overseas Private Investment Corporation (OPIC), United States Information Agency (USIA), Office of the United States Trade Representative (USTR), and Peace Corps, plus outlays for foreign-affairs-related activities for the Departments of Agriculture, Commerce, Energy, Labor, and Treasury and outlays for salaries of Department of Defense personnel with foreign affairs occupational specialties.

[2] Expenses of Department of State and Foreign Service and contributions to international organizations and conferences.

Source: *Budget of the United States, FY 1986*, 1985, and supplementary information from individual U.S. Government agencies.

Average Annual Percentage of Outlays, 1937-84



[a] Period of intensified economic and military assistance.

Source: *Budget of the United States Government* (years as indicated).

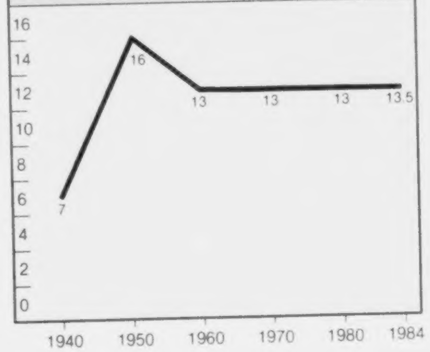
Personnel, FY 1984 (number of persons)

Total Federal Government Civilian Employment	2,000,000
Total Foreign Affairs[1]	36,000 (less than 2% of total)

[1] U.S. citizens only—all State, AID, Eximbank, ITC, NSC, OPIC, Peace Corps staff, USIA, and USTR employees, plus foreign-affairs-related positions in Agriculture, Commerce, Defense, Energy, Labor, and Treasury.

Department of State Employment, 1940-84[a]

(thousands of persons)



[a] Excludes foreign nationals.

International Organizations

The following maps and charts illustrate the history and scope of leading international organizations. These are bodies created by agreement among governments to achieve some common goal or provide services beyond the power or authority of any single nation. International organizations may be classified as universal or particular, depending on whether they are open to all countries or limited to countries of a special region or political or economic order.

Almost all countries belong to the United Nations (UN), the organization that represents the community of nations as a whole. Founded in 1945 at the end of World War II, the UN was designed to preserve the peace and promote economic and social development. With this broad mandate, the United Nations has developed into a system comprising many organizations and programs providing services throughout the world.

Most countries also belong to one or more particular organizations. The Organization of African Unity, the developing countries' Group of 77, and similar bodies have UN standing or cooperate in UN activities. But military alliances, such as the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (which was designed to promote UN goals), have no official connection with the United Nations.

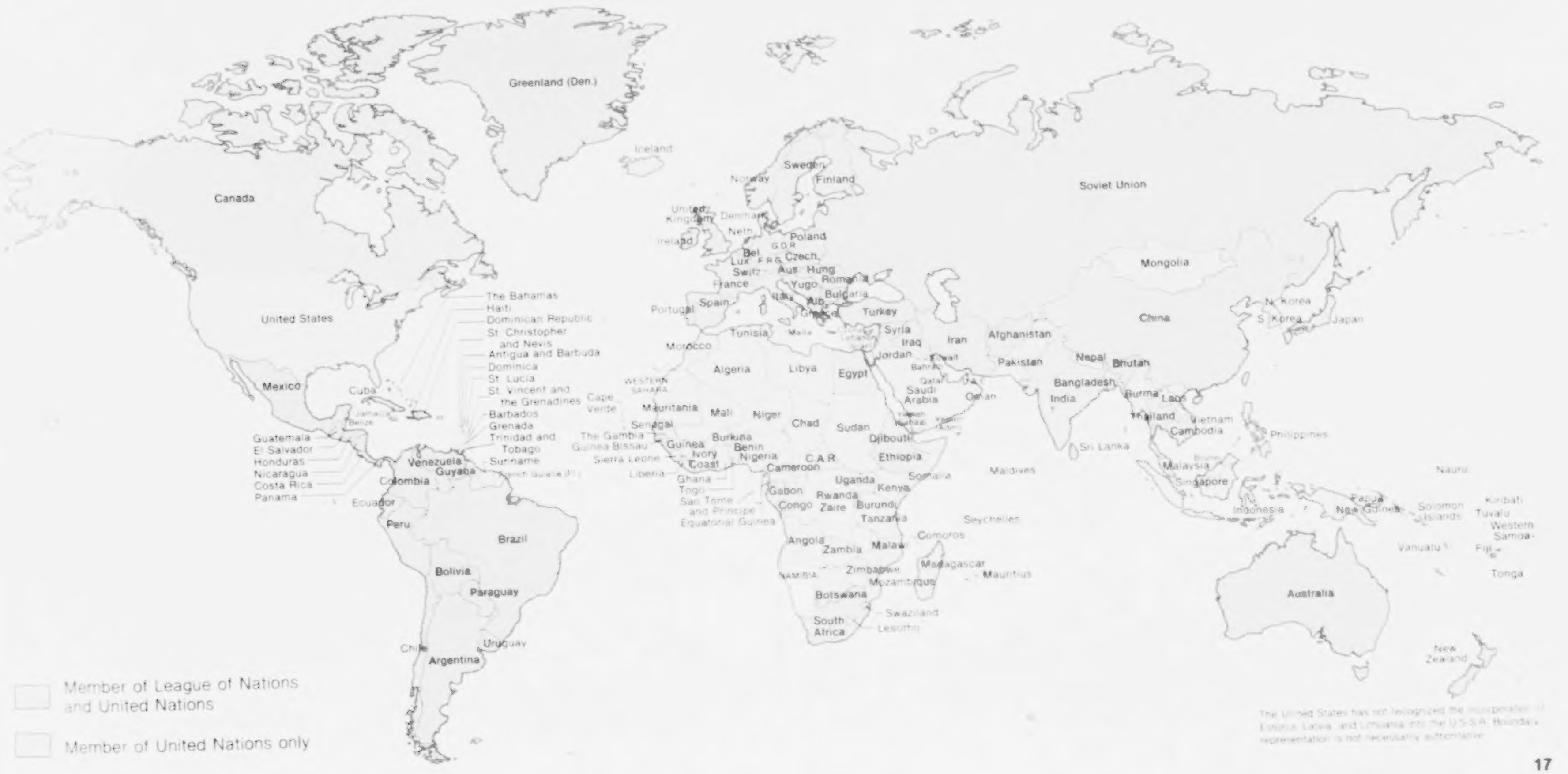
The membership of most particular organizations reflects the world's division into three groups of nations—the industrial democracies (countries with a developed market economy and accountable governments), the Soviet bloc (countries with a centrally planned economy allied with the U.S.S.R.), and the Third World (consisting of the many and varied developing countries located mostly in southern parts of the globe).

Members of the League of Nations and the United Nations

The League of Nations and the United Nations were both designed to promote world peace and social progress. Established in 1920 by the peace treaties ending World War I and dissolved in 1946 (after the United Nations had come into being), the League functioned in a period when most of today's countries were still under colonial rule and thus ineligible for membership in an organization composed of sovereign states. (India, though not fully self-governing, was an original member of the League because it had attended the peace conferences and signed the treaties as a separate unit of the British Empire; and Iraq was admitted to the League in 1932 as an independent country even though it was still dependent on the United Kingdom in foreign affairs.) Nor did the major powers all participate fully in League activities. The United States chose not to become a member; and when the U.S.S.R. joined the League in 1934, Brazil, Germany, and Japan had already withdrawn. The League, in fact, never had more than one-third as many members as the United Nations has today.

The Charter of the United Nations was signed in 1945 at the end of World War II. Original members were 51 allied nations (including two constituent republics of the U.S.S.R., the Ukraine and Belorussia). By 1965 membership had doubled and by 1985 had tripled to the current total of 159. More than half the members are former colonies that achieved their independence after World War II.

Countries absent from both the League and the United Nations are Andorra, Liechtenstein, San Marino, and the Vatican. Switzerland joined the League but not the United Nations. North Korea has never sought UN membership, while proposals to admit South Korea have been vetoed by the U.S.S.R.


Greenland (Den.)
Iceland
Canada
Soviet Union
Norway
Sweden
Finland
United Kingdom
Denmark
Ireland
Neth.
Poland
G.D.R.
Bel.
Lux.
F.R.G.
Czech.
Switz.
Aus.
Hung.
France
Romania
Yugo.
Bulgaria
Portugal
Spain
Italy
Alb.
Greece
Turkey
Mongolia
United States
China
N. Korea
S. Korea
Japan
The Bahamas
Haiti
Dominican Republic
St. Christopher and Nevis
Antigua and Barbuda
Dominica
St. Lucia
St. Vincent and the Grenadines
Barbados
Grenada
Trinidad and Tobago
Suriname
French Guiana (Fr.)
Morocco
Tunisia
Malta
Syria
Iraq
Iran
Afghanistan
Jordan
Kuwait
Bahrain
Qatar
U.A.E.
Saudi Arabia
Oman
Pakistan
Nepal
Bhutan
Bangladesh
India
Burma
Laos
Thailand
Vietnam
Cambodia
Philippines
Mexico
Cuba
Jamaica
Belize
Guatemala
El Salvador
Honduras
Nicaragua
Costa Rica
Panama
Venezuela
Guyana
Colombia
Ecuador
Peru
Brazil
Bolivia
Paraguay
Chile
Uruguay
Argentina
WESTERN SAHARA
Cape Verde
Mauritania
Mali
Niger
Algeria
Libya
Egypt
Chad
Sudan
Djibouti
Senegal
The Gambia
Guinea Bissau
Guinea
Sierra Leone
Liberia
Ivory Coast
Ghana
Togo
Sao Tome and Principe
Equatorial Guinea
Burkina
Benin
Nigeria
Cameroon
C.A.R.
Ethiopia
Somalia
Maldives
Sri Lanka
Gabon
Congo
Uganda
Kenya
Rwanda
Zaire
Burundi
Tanzania
Seychelles
Comoros
Angola
Zambia
Malawi
Madagascar
Mauritius
NAMIBIA
Zimbabwe
Mozambique
Botswana
South Africa
Swaziland
Lesotho
Malaysia
Singapore
Brunei
Indonesia
Papua New Guinea
Solomon Islands
Nauru
Kiribati
Tuvalu
Western Samoa
Vanuatu
Fiji
Tonga
Australia
New Zealand
Member of League of Nations and United Nations
Member of United Nations only

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Growth of UN Membership

	Americas	**Europe**	**Asia/Oceania**	**Africa**
1945 Original Members	Argentina Bolivia Brazil Canada Chile Colombia Costa Rica Cuba Dominican Republic Ecuador El Salvador Guatemala Haiti Honduras Mexico Nicaragua Panama Paraguay Peru United States Uruguay Venezuela	Belgium Belorussia Czechoslovakia Denmark France Greece Luxembourg Netherlands Norway Poland Turkey Ukraine U.S.S.R. United Kingdom Yugoslavia	Australia China India Iran Iraq Lebanon New Zealand Philippines Saudi Arabia Syria	Egypt Ethiopia Liberia South Africa
1945-1965	Jamaica Trinidad and Tobago	Albania Austria Bulgaria Finland Hungary Iceland Ireland Italy Malta Portugal Romania Spain Sweden	Afghanistan Burma Cambodia Cyprus Indonesia Israel Japan Jordan Kuwait Laos Malaysia Maldives Mongolia Nepal Pakistan Singapore Sri Lanka Thailand Yemen (Sanaa)	Algeria Benin Burkina Burundi Cameroon Central African Republic Chad Congo Gabon The Gambia Ghana Guinea Ivory Coast Kenya Libya Madagascar Malawi Mali Mauritania Morocco Niger Nigeria Rwanda Senegal Sierra Leone Somalia Sudan Tanzania Togo Tunisia Uganda Zaire Zambia
1965-1985	Antigua and Barbuda The Bahamas Barbados Belize Dominica Grenada Guyana St. Christopher and Nevis St. Lucia St. Vincent and the Grenadines Suriname	German Democratic Republic Germany, Federal Republic of	Bahrain Bangladesh Bhutan Brunei Fiji Oman Papua New Guinea Qatar Solomon Islands United Arab Emirates Vanuatu Vietnam Western Samoa Yemen (Aden)	Angola Botswana Cape Verde Comoros Djibouti Equatorial Guinea Guinea-Bissau Lesotho Mauritius Mozambique Sao Tome and Principe Seychelles Swaziland Zimbabwe

The UN Family of Organizations

Specialized Agencies

The UN system includes 15 organizations known as the UN specialized agencies. Created to provide international services in various economic, cultural, or technical fields, these bodies are similar in organization but differ in degree of affiliation with the United Nations and have separate statutes, budgets, and memberships. The Universal Postal Union, for example, with its 166 members, is larger than the United Nations itself. Following is a list of the specialized agencies.

International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD)

International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO)

International Development Association (IDA)

International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD)

International Finance Corporation (IFC)

International Labor Organization (ILO)

Inter-Governmental Maritime Consultative Organization (IMCO)

International Monetary Fund (IMF)

International Telecommunication Union (ITU)

Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO)

UN Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO)

Universal Postal Union (UPU)

World Health Organization (WHO)

World Intellectual Property Organization (WIPO)

World Meteorological Organization (WMO)

Other Organizations

Similar to the specialized agencies are several bodies created by the UN General Assembly to meet other needs and emergencies. Such organizations include the UN Development Program (UNDP), which administers technical assistance to the developing countries; the UN High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), which provides legal protection and material support for political refugees throughout the world; and the UN Children's Fund (UNICEF), founded in 1946 to assist children in war-ravaged countries and made a permanent agency in 1953.

Some UN agencies have been created to focus on specific geographic areas. The Economic and Social Council established the regional economic commissions for Europe, Asia and the Pacific, Latin America, western Asia, and Africa to promote regional trade and industry. The United Nations also is associated with several of the regional or subregional development banks, mostly those in Third World areas, which contribute to regional development efforts.

Regional Arrangements

Although the United Nations was intended to be the universal peacekeeping organization, the charter provides that members may resort to regional arrangements or agencies to settle local disputes. This provision was adopted because nearly 40% of the countries that signed the charter in 1945 were already members of a well-developed regional bloc, the inter-American system comprising the United States and the Latin American republics.

In 1948 the UN General Assembly invited the Organization of American States to send observers to General Assembly sessions. In 1950 this recognition of special regional status was extended to the League of Arab States, which had come into existence a few months before the charter was ratified, and in 1965 to the Organization of African Unity founded in 1963.

UN Peacekeeping Operations

As the universal organ of collective security, the United Nations promotes disarmament and encourages peaceful solutions to international disputes. Through the voluntary cooperation of its members, the United Nations also has taken steps to suppress aggression, prevent or end armed hostilities, and maintain peace and order in territories where local authority is not fully established. These "peacekeeping" operations take the form of military observer groups supervising truces or cease-fires or of armed forces prepared for more direct intervention. The oldest UN military observer group is UNTSO, created during the Arab-Israeli hostilities in 1948. In size, observer groups range from fewer than 10 to more than 130 persons, while armed forces' strength has varied from UNSF's 1,500 Pakistanis to ONUC's peak of 16,000 drawn from many nations. In the Korean war, where the object was to repel large-scale aggression, peak UN strength was about 400,000, the bulk accounted for by the United States. (The maximum strength of Republic of Korea forces under the UN Command was somewhat more than 400,000.)

○ UN Military Observer Groups
● UN Armed Forces

Latin America

IAPF. Inter-American Peace Force, 1965–66: Moderate civil strife in the Dominican Republic (dispatched by the Organization of American States; UN representative and military observer present concurrently with IAPF).

Africa

ONUC. French initials for the UN Operation in the Congo, 1960–64: Keep peace and order, preserve unity.

Europe

UNMOG. UN Military Observers in Greece, 1952–54: Investigate incidents along borders with Albania, Yugoslavia and Bulgaria.

UNFICYP. UN Force in Cyprus, 1964-present: Keep law and order and peace between Greek and Turkish communities.

Middle East

UNTSO. UN Truce Supervision Organization in Palestine, 1948-present: Supervise armistice among Israel, Jordan, Lebanon, and Syria.

UNEF. UN Emergency Force, 1956–67, 1973–79: Prevent Israeli-Egyptian hostilities, keep peace and order in Sinai and Gaza Strip.

UNOGIL. UN Observer Group in Lebanon, June-December 1958: Police Lebanon-Syria border.

UNDOF. UN Disengagement Observer Force, 1974-present: Maintain cease-fire between Syria and Israel.

UNIFIL. UN Interim Force in Lebanon, 1978-present: Police Lebanon-Israel border.

UNYOM. UN Yemen Observation Mission, 1963–64: Report on withdrawal of Saudi Arabian and Egyptian forces.

Asia/Pacific

UNMOGIP. UN Military Observer Group in India and Pakistan, 1948-present: Supervise cease-fire in Jammu-Kashmir.

UNCFI. UN Commission for Indonesia, 1949–51: Settle dispute with Netherlands.

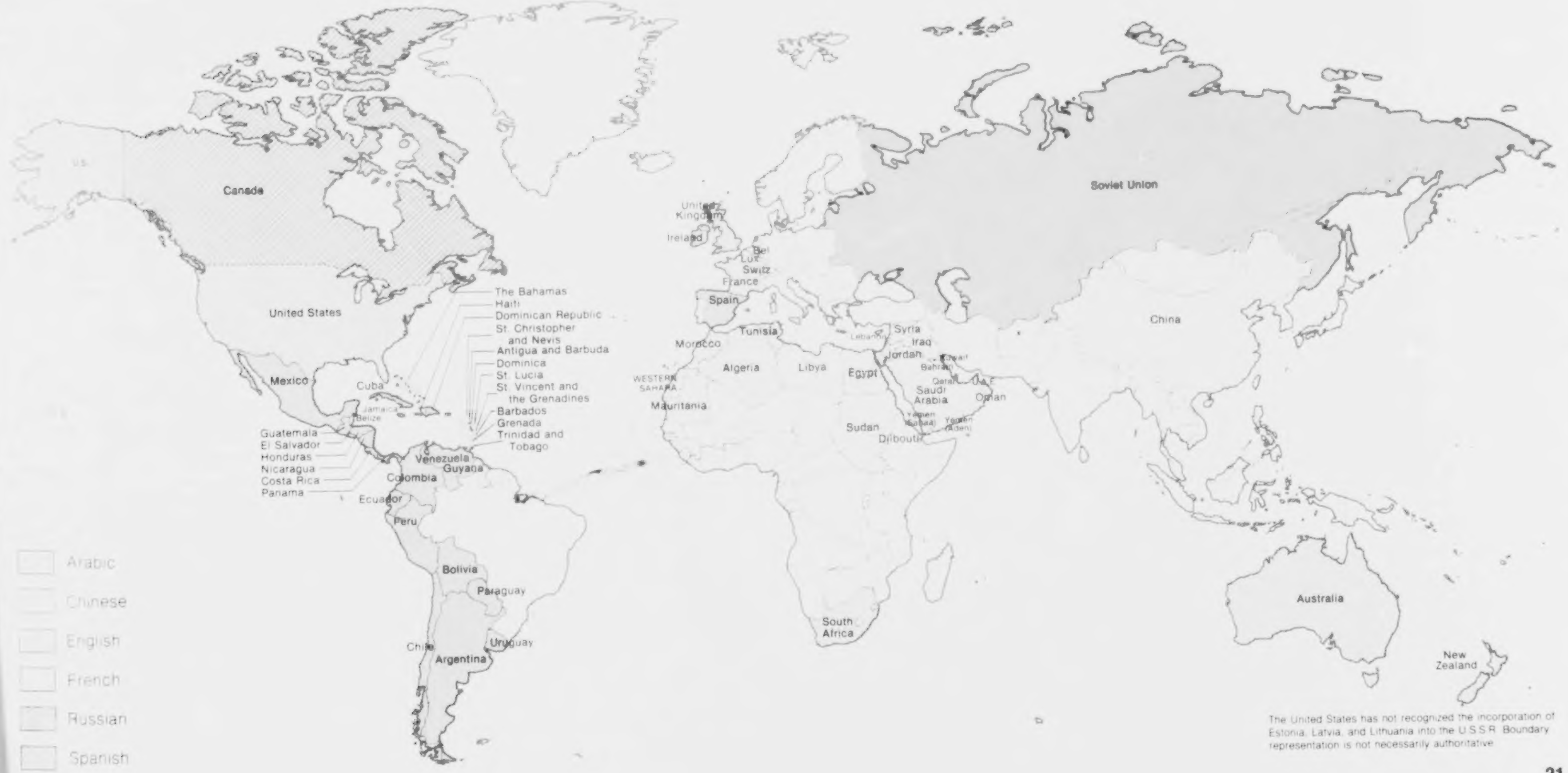
United Nations Command in Korea, 1950-present: Established to repel armed attack by forces from North Korea and restore international peace in Korea.

UNSF. UN Security Force, 1962-63: Facilitate transfer of West Irian to Indonesia.

UNIPOM. UN India-Pakistan Observation Mission, 1965–66: Supervise cease-fire in Rann of Kutch.

Home Countries of the Six Official UN Languages

The UN Charter Conference in 1945 designated Chinese, English, French, Russian, and Spanish as the organization's official languages. These were the tongues that could be used without prior notice for addresses in the General Assembly, Security Council, and UN Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization. In 1973 Arabic was added for use in the General Assembly and its Main Committees. Altogether the six official languages are in common use in more than 100 countries and are native to more than 40% of the world's population. At the charter conference, the United Nations also established a category of working languages to be used for general business and, at first, for the verbatim reports of the proceedings. The first languages so designated were English and French, both in wide use outside their native range.


Canada
United States
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St. Christopher and Nevis
Antigua and Barbuda
Dominica
St. Lucia
St. Vincent and the Grenadines
Barbados
Grenada
Trinidad and Tobago
Guatemala
El Salvador
Honduras
Nicaragua
Costa Rica
Panama
Venezuela
Guyana
Colombia
Ecuador
Peru
Bolivia
Paraguay
Chile
Argentina
Uruguay
United Kingdom
Ireland
Bel.
Lux.
Switz.
France
Spain
Morocco
Tunisia
Algeria
Libya
Egypt
Western Sahara
Mauritania
Lebanon
Syria
Iraq
Jordan
Kuwait
Bahrain
Qatar
Saudi Arabia
U.A.E.
Oman
Yemen (Sanaa)
Yemen (Aden)
Sudan
Djibouti
South Africa
Soviet Union
China
Australia
New Zealand
Arabic
Chinese
English
French
Russian
Spanish

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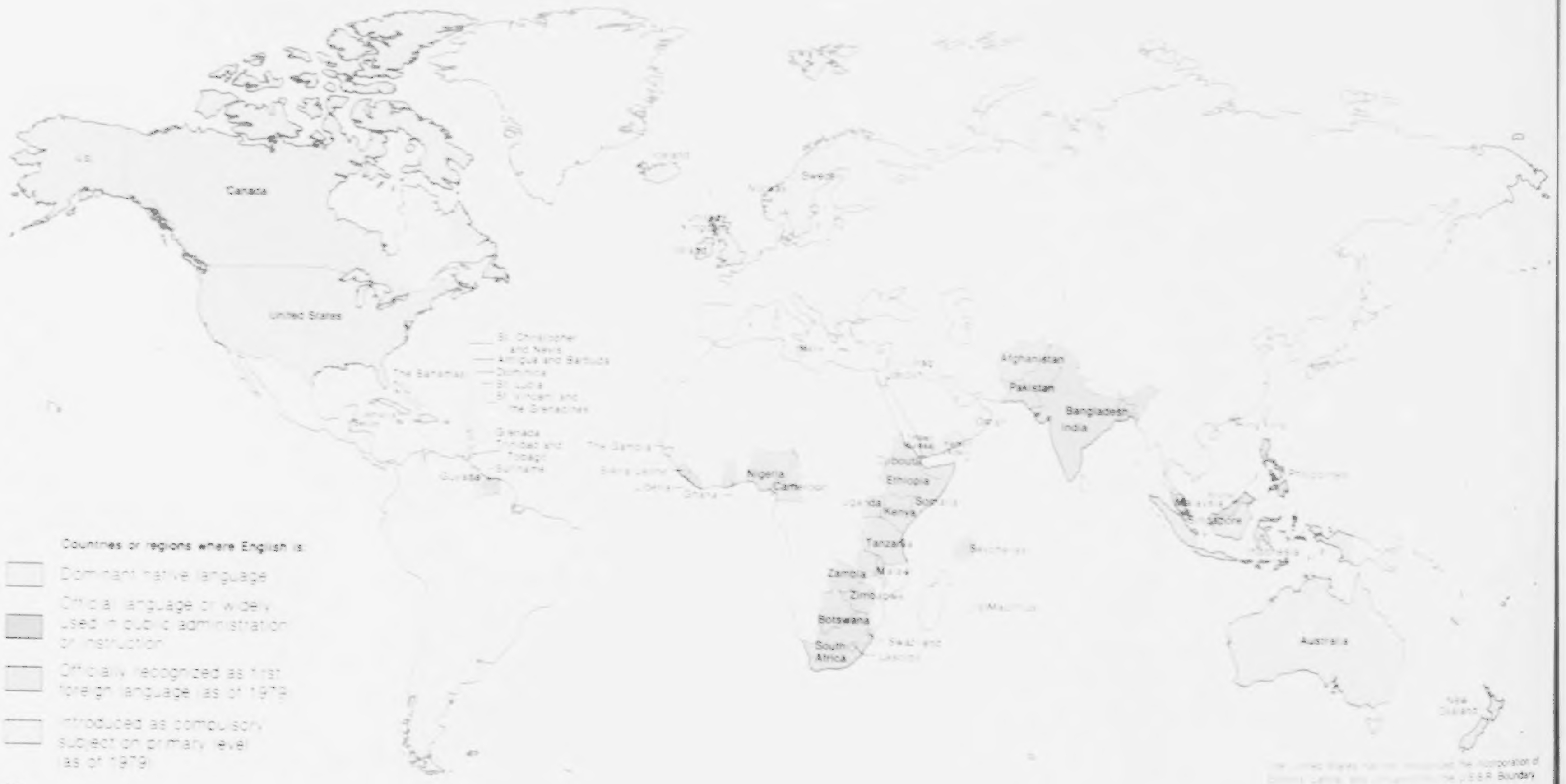
English as a World Language

English has become the leading international tongue. Widely used in diplomacy, it is also the language of sea and air navigation and is indispensable for international scientific discourse. English also is used extensively within certain countries where it is not native. It is the preferred language for commerce, education, and government in many former British colonies where, by bridging differences between language groups, it helps to cement national unity.


Canada
United States
The Bahamas
St. Christopher and Nevis
Antigua and Barbuda
Dominica
St. Lucia
St. Vincent and the Grenadines
Grenada
Trinidad and Tobago
Suriname
Guyana
The Gambia
Sierra Leone
Liberia
Ghana
Nigeria
Cameroon
Djibouti
Ethiopia
Somalia
Uganda
Kenya
Tanzania
Zambia
Malawi
Zimbabwe
Botswana
South Africa
Swaziland
Lesotho
Seychelles
Mauritius
Afghanistan
Pakistan
Bangladesh
India
Malaysia
Singapore
Philippines
Australia
New Zealand
Countries or regions where English is:
Dominant native language
Official language or widely used in public administration or instruction
Officially recognized as first foreign language (as of 1979)
Introduced as compulsory subject on primary level (as of 1979)

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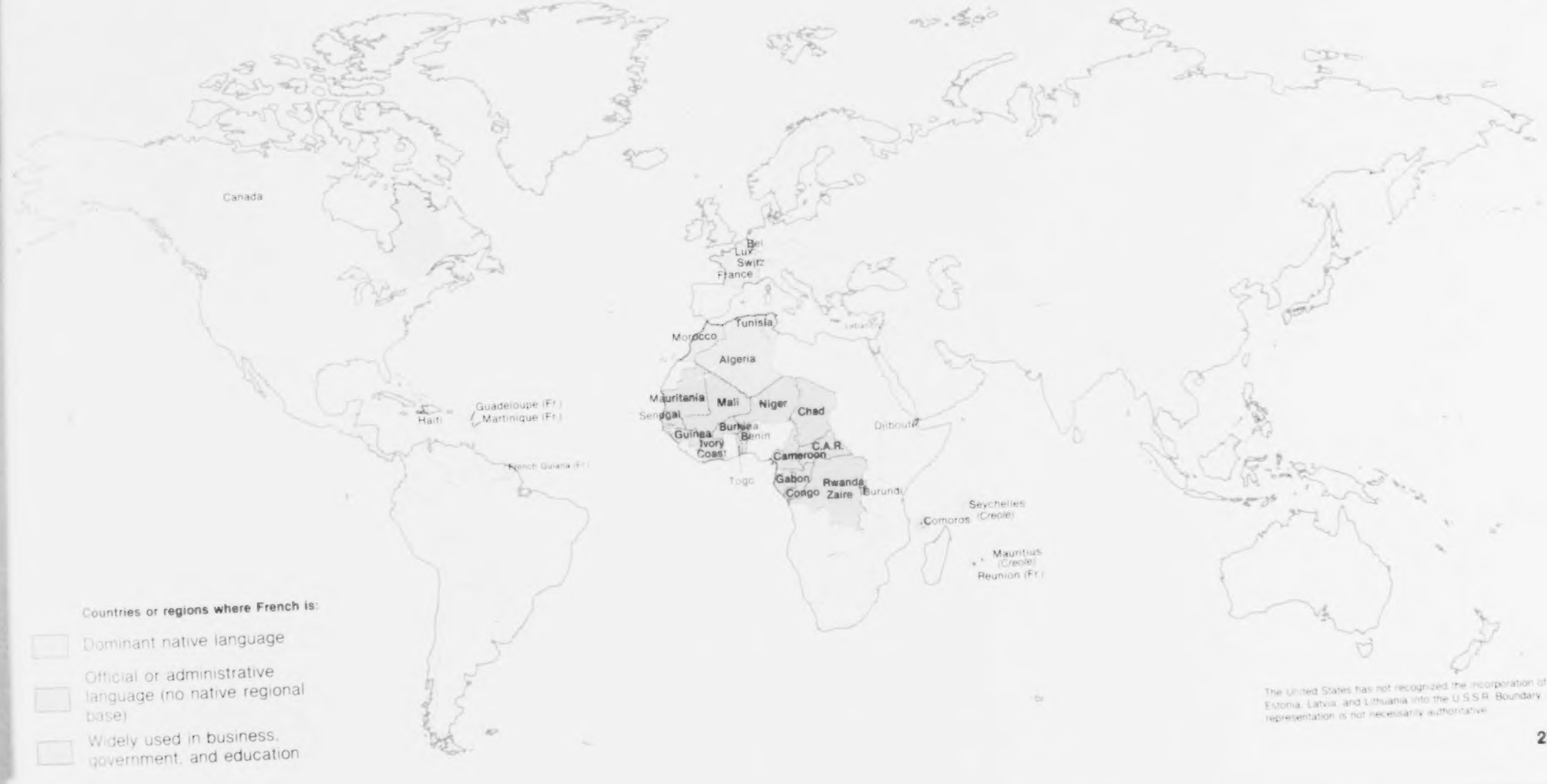
French as a World Language

French also plays an important role in international affairs. The first language of diplomacy from the end of the 17th century to well into the 20th century, it is widely used in international organizations and at world conferences. French is the language of education, commerce, and government in former French and Belgian colonies in sub-Saharan Africa, and it has a special position as the working, or first foreign, language in former French colonies in North Africa and the Middle East.

Note: Under the Canadian Official Languages Act of 1969, French and English are equal official languages throughout the country for use with and in Federal government offices and Canadian parliamentary institutions.


Canada
Bel
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France
Tunisia
Morocco
Algeria
Lebanon
Mauritania
Mali
Niger
Chad
Senegal
Guinea
Burkina
Benin
Ivory Coast
C.A.R.
Cameroon
Togo
Gabon
Congo
Rwanda
Zaire
Burundi
Djibouti
Haiti
Guadeloupe (Fr.)
Martinique (Fr.)
French Guiana (Fr.)
Seychelles (Creole)
Comoros
Mauritius (Creole)
Reunion (Fr.)
Countries or regions where French is:
Dominant native language
Official or administrative language (no native regional base)
Widely used in business, government, and education

The United States has not recognized the incorporation of Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania into the U.S.S.R. Boundary representation is not necessarily authoritative.

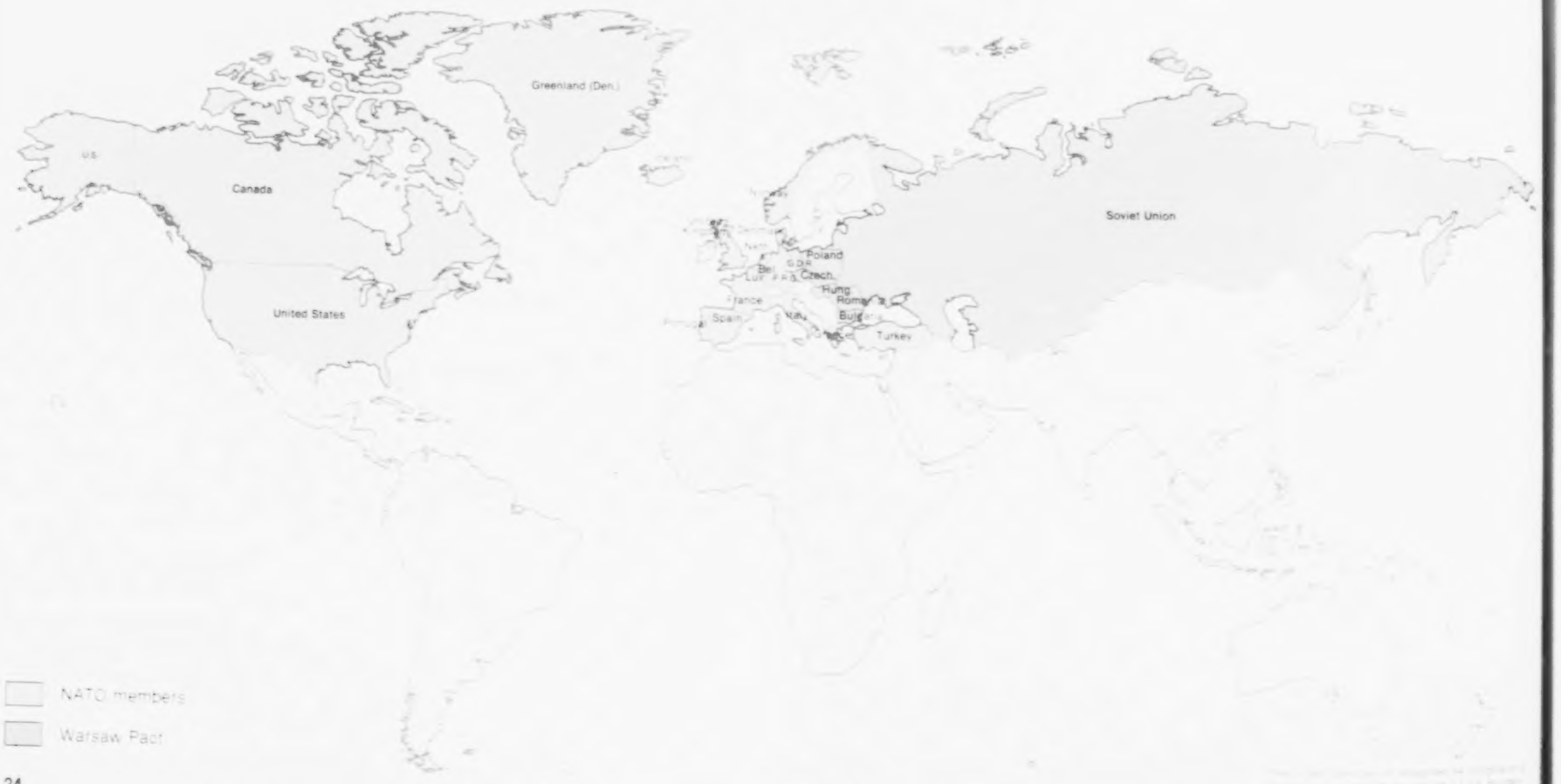
NATO and the Warsaw Pact

The North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) was founded in 1949 to provide for collective defense of Western Europe and North America. From the beginning, the organization was designed to promote wide cooperation in political, economic, social, and scientific fields as well as military security.

Members: Belgium, Canada, Denmark, France, Federal Republic of Germany, Greece, Iceland, Italy, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, Spain, Turkey, United Kingdom, United States.

The Warsaw Pact on Friendship, Cooperation and Mutual Assistance comprises the U.S.S.R. and its East European allies. Signed in 1955, it provides a common defense system and machinery for coordinating foreign policy.

Members: Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, German Democratic Republic, Hungary, Poland, Romania, U.S.S.R.


Greenland (Den.)
U.S.
Canada
United States
Iceland
Norway
United Kingdom
Denmark
Neth.
Bel.
Lux.
F.R.G.
G.D.R.
Poland
Czech.
Hung.
Romania
Bulgaria
France
Spain
Portugal
Italy
Greece
Turkey
Soviet Union
NATO members
Warsaw Pact

[illegible]

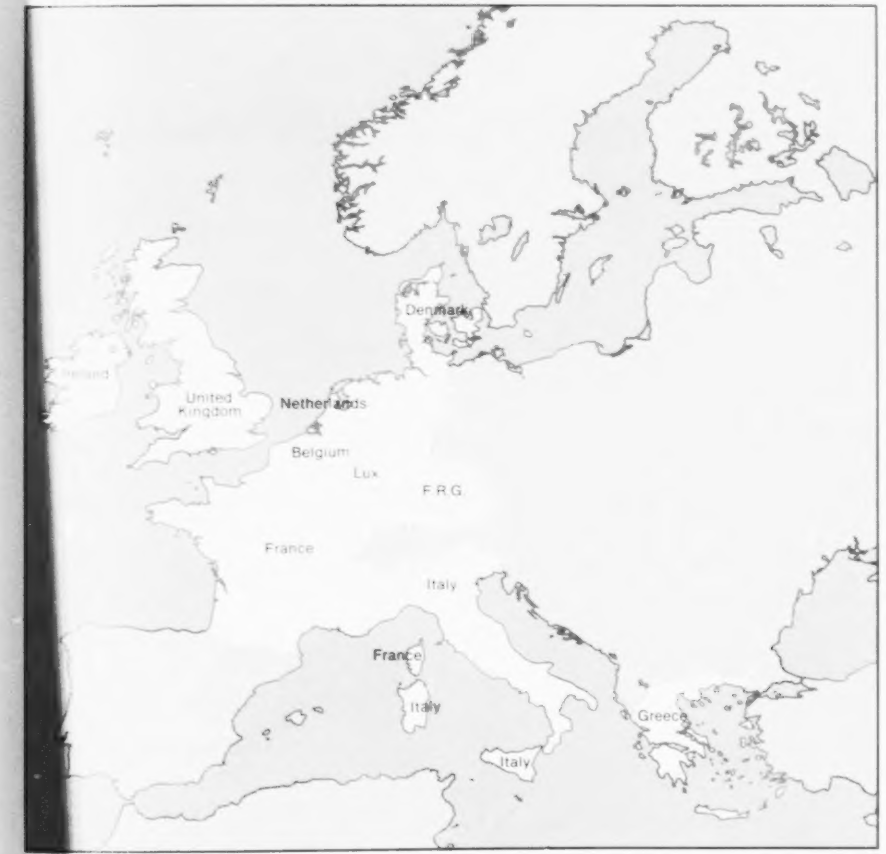
European Communities (EC)

The EC is the keystone of West European unity. Founded in 1967, the EC unites the three combines set up in the 1950s—the European Coal and Steel Community, the European Economic Community (or Common Market), and the European Atomic Energy Community. The EC has the authority to conclude binding agreements with nonmember countries and international organizations. Although present functions are mostly economic, the final aim is political federation.

Original members: Belgium, France, Federal Republic of Germany, Italy, Luxembourg, Netherlands.

Later adherents: Denmark, Ireland, United Kingdom (1973); Greece (1981).

Note: Greenland, affiliated with the EC through Denmark's adherence, achieved self-rule in 1979 and left the EC in 1985. The target date for the entry of Spain and Portugal into the EC is January 1, 1986.


Denmark
Ireland
United Kingdom
Netherlands
Belgium
Lux
F.R.G.
France
Italy
France
Italy
Greece
Italy

Other West European Organizations

European Free Trade Association
Iceland
Norway
Sweden
Finland
Switz.
Aus.
Portugal

Council of Europe
Iceland
Norway
Sweden
United Kingdom
Denmark
Ireland
Neth.
Bel.
Lux.
F.R.G.
Aus.
Switz.
Liech.
France
Italy
Spain
Portugal
France
Italy
Greece
Turkey
Malta
Cyprus

Nordic Council
Iceland
Norway
Sweden
Finland
Denmark

Boundary representation is not necessarily authoritative

Council of Europe. The largest association of West European states is the Council of Europe, founded in 1949 to foster the common heritage and promote human rights and social progress.

Members: Austria, Belgium, Cyprus, Denmark, France, West Germany, Greece, Iceland, Ireland, Italy, Liechtenstein, Luxembourg, Malta, Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, United Kingdom.

European Free Trade Association. In 1960, seven countries unable to accept the Common Market's ultimate goal of political union founded the EFTA for the purpose of reducing and eventually eliminating tariffs on one another's industrial products. Two of the original members, the United Kingdom and Denmark, have since joined the Common Market.

Members: Austria, Iceland, Norway, Portugal, Sweden, Switzerland.

Former members: Denmark, United Kingdom.

Associate member: Finland.

Nordic Council. The Scandinavian countries founded the Nordic Council in 1952 as a means of working toward harmonious laws and cooperative efforts in cultural fields.

Members: Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway, Sweden.

Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD)

The OECD is the only international organization comprising all industrial democracies. Founded in 1960 to replace the Organization for European Economic Cooperation, organ of the Marshall Plan, the OECD extended international economic consultation beyond Europe to North America and the Pacific. The OECD provides for joint economic analysis and for efforts to harmonize international economic practices and improve assistance to developing countries. With one-fifth of the world's population, OECD countries account for about 70% of the world's trade.

Members: Australia, Austria, Belgium, Canada, Denmark, Finland, France, Federal Republic of Germany, Greece, Iceland, Ireland, Italy, Japan, Luxembourg, Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Portugal, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, United Kingdom, United States.

Greenland (Den.)
U.S.
Canada
United States
Iceland
Norway
Sweden
Finland
United Kingdom
Denmark
Ireland
Neth.
Bel.
Lux.
F.R.G.
Switz.
Aus
France
Portugal
Spain
Italy
Greece
Turkey
Japan
Australia
New Zealand

The United States has not recognized the inco
Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania into the U.S.S.R.
representation is not necessarily authoritative

Council for Mutual Economic Assistance (CMEA)

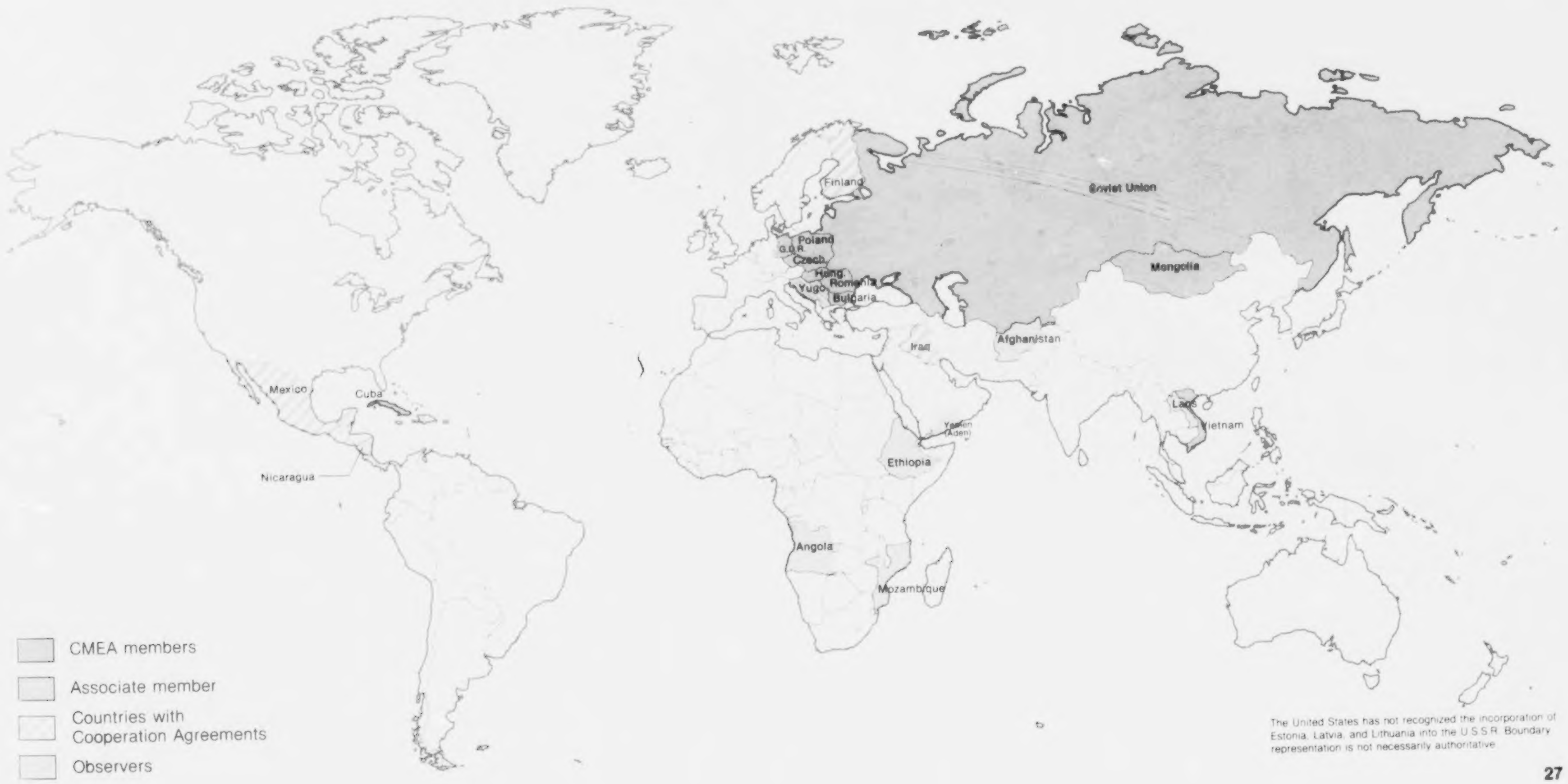
CMEA was founded in 1949 as Eastern Europe's counterpart to the Marshall Plan for economic recovery in Western Europe. Membership has been open to non-European countries since Mongolia's accession in 1962. Full members all have communist governments and are allies of the Soviet Union. CMEA promotes coordinated economic planning and trade specialization. Its ultimate goal is full economic integration, but it has no supranational authority and (unlike the European Communities) does not function as a unit in trade with nonmember countries.

Members: Bulgaria, Cuba, Czechoslovakia, German Democratic Republic, Hungary, Mongolia, Poland, Romania, U.S.S.R., Vietnam.

Associate member: Yugoslavia.

Countries with Cooperation Agreements: Finland, Iraq, Mexico.

Observers: Afghanistan, Angola, Ethiopia, Laos, Mozambique, Nicaragua, Yemen (Aden).


Finland
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G.D.R.
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Hung.
Romania
Yugo.
Bulgaria
Mongolia
Iraq
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Mexico
Cuba
Laos
Vietnam
Yemen (Aden)
Ethiopia
Nicaragua
Angola
Mozambique
▨ CMEA members
▨ Associate member
☐ Countries with Cooperation Agreements
☐ Observers

The United States has not recognized the incorporation of Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania into the U.S.S.R. Boundary representation is not necessarily authoritative.

African, Caribbean and Pacific Group of States (ACP)

The ACP is a group of more than 60 developing countries sharing special economic relations with the European Economic Community (EEC). Created by the 1975 Lome Convention, the group was limited originally to former colonies of EEC members. The convention (modified in 1981 and 1984) provides for free entry into the EEC of ACP manufactured goods and most primary commodities at stable prices. The EEC also provides special development assistance and food aid.

ACP Members

Africa

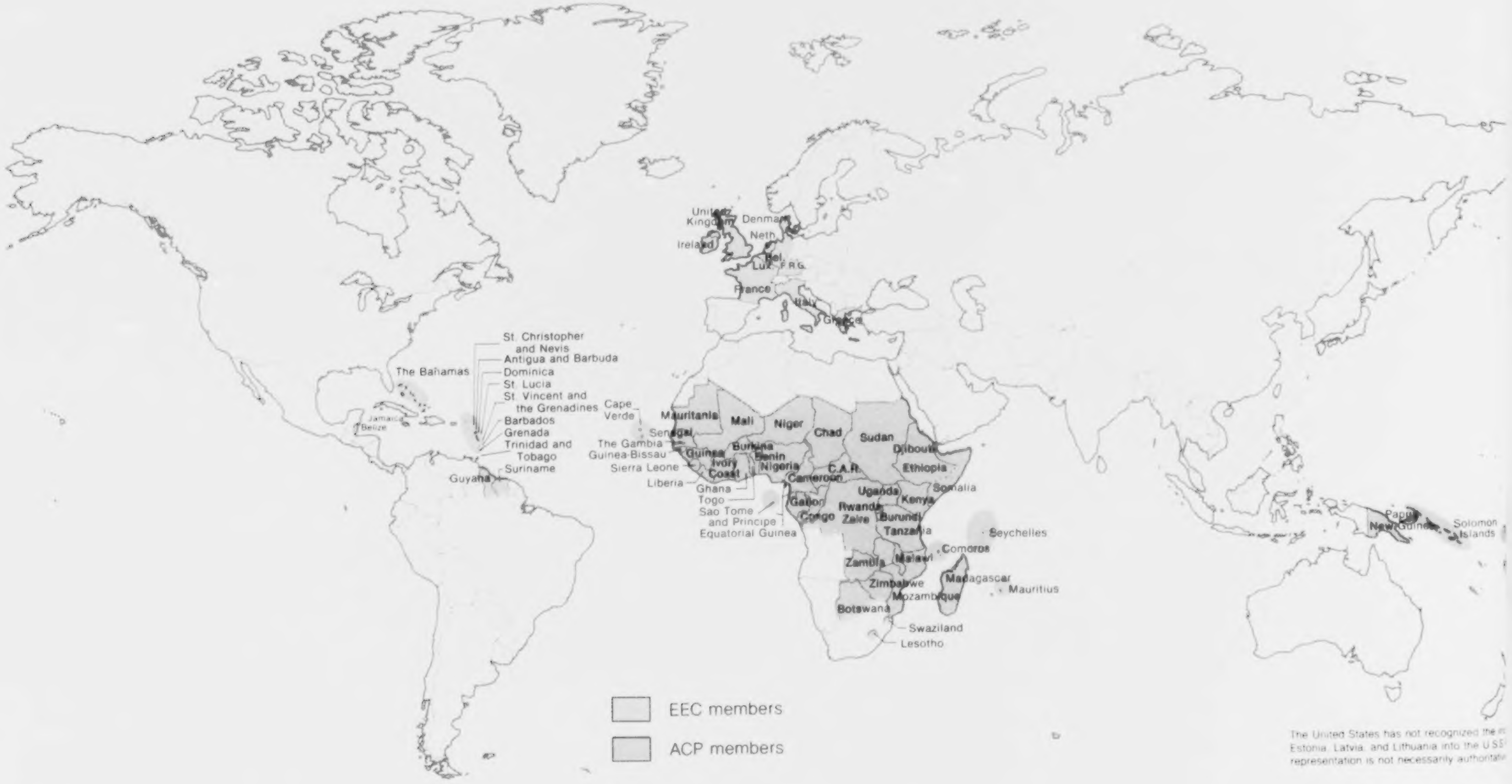
Benin
Botswana
Burkina
Burundi
Cameroon
Cape Verde
Central African
  Republic
Chad
Comoros
Congo
Djibouti
Equatorial Guinea
Ethiopia
Gabon
The Gambia
Ghana
Guinea
Guinea-Bissau
Ivory Coast
Kenya
Lesotho
Liberia
Madagascar
Malawi
Mali
Mauritania
Mauritius
Mozambique
Niger
Nigeria
Rwanda
Sao Tome and Principe
Senegal
Seychelles
Sierra Leone
Somalia
Sudan
Swaziland
Tanzania
Togo
Uganda
Zaire
Zambia
Zimbabwe

Caribbean

Antigua and Barbuda
The Bahamas
Barbados
Belize
Dominica
Grenada
Guyana
Jamaica
St. Christopher
  and Nevis
St. Lucia
St. Vincent and the
  Grenadines
Suriname
Trinidad and Tobago

Pacific

Fiji
Kiribati
Papua New Guinea
Solomon Islands
Tonga
Tuvalu
Western Samoa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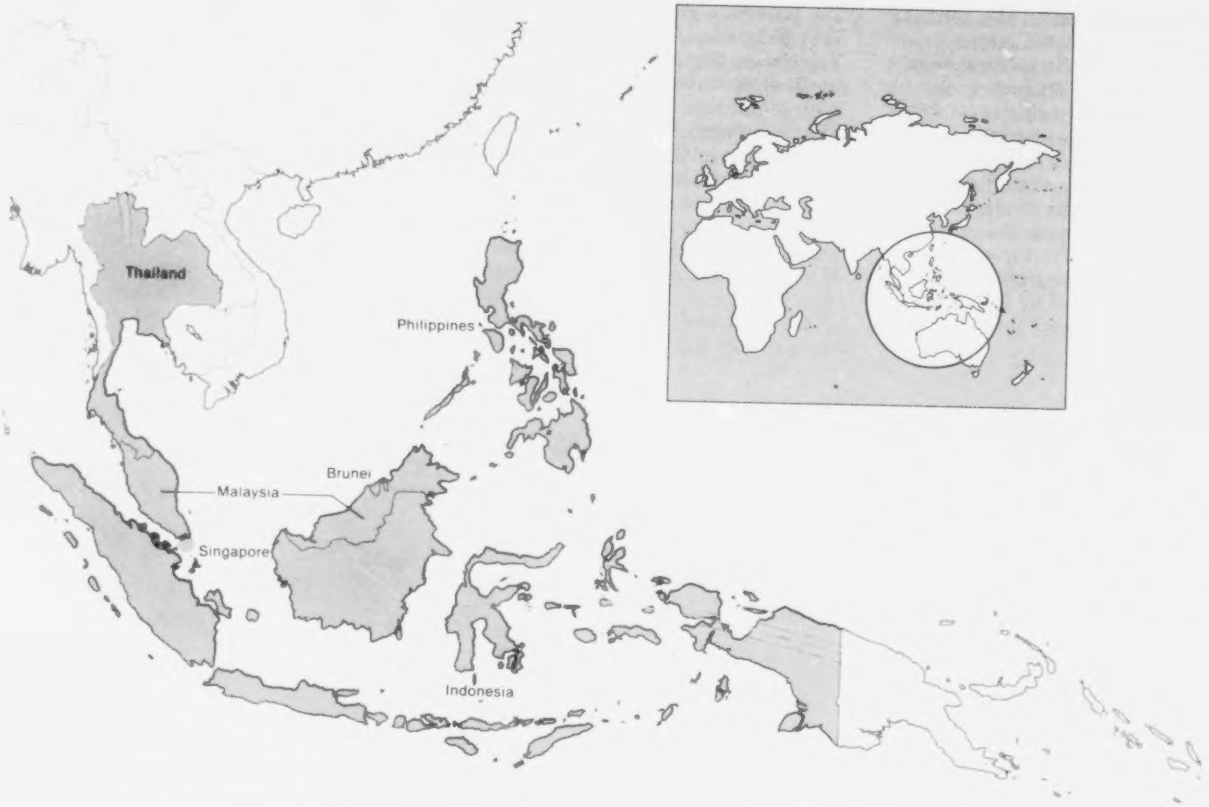
Cameroon
C.A.R.
Djibouti
Ethiopia
Somalia
Uganda
Kenya
Gabon
Congo
Rwanda
Zaire
Burundi
Tanzania
Seychelles
Comoros
Zambia
Malawi
Zimbabwe
Mozambique
Madagascar
Mauritius
Botswana
Swaziland
Lesotho
Papua New Guinea
Solomon Islands
EEC members
ACP members

The United States has not recognized the
Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania into the U.S.S
representation is not necessarily authoritati

Association of South East Asian Nations (ASEAN)

Founded in 1967, ASEAN provides a framework for economic and political cooperation among Southeast Asia's noncommunist states. ASEAN functions through meetings of economic and foreign ministers and specialized committees, supported by a small secretariat. Its economic program includes joint industrial projects, mutual tariff reduction, and joint negotiations with major trading partners. Foreign ministers consult regularly with their counterparts from the EC, Japan, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and the United States. In key foreign capitals and in Geneva (home of major international organizations), common interests are represented by ASEAN committees consisting of members' diplomatic mission chiefs.

Charter members: Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines, Singapore, and Thailand. Brunei joined ASEAN after achieving full independence from the United Kingdom in 1984.



Boundary representation is not necessarily authoritative

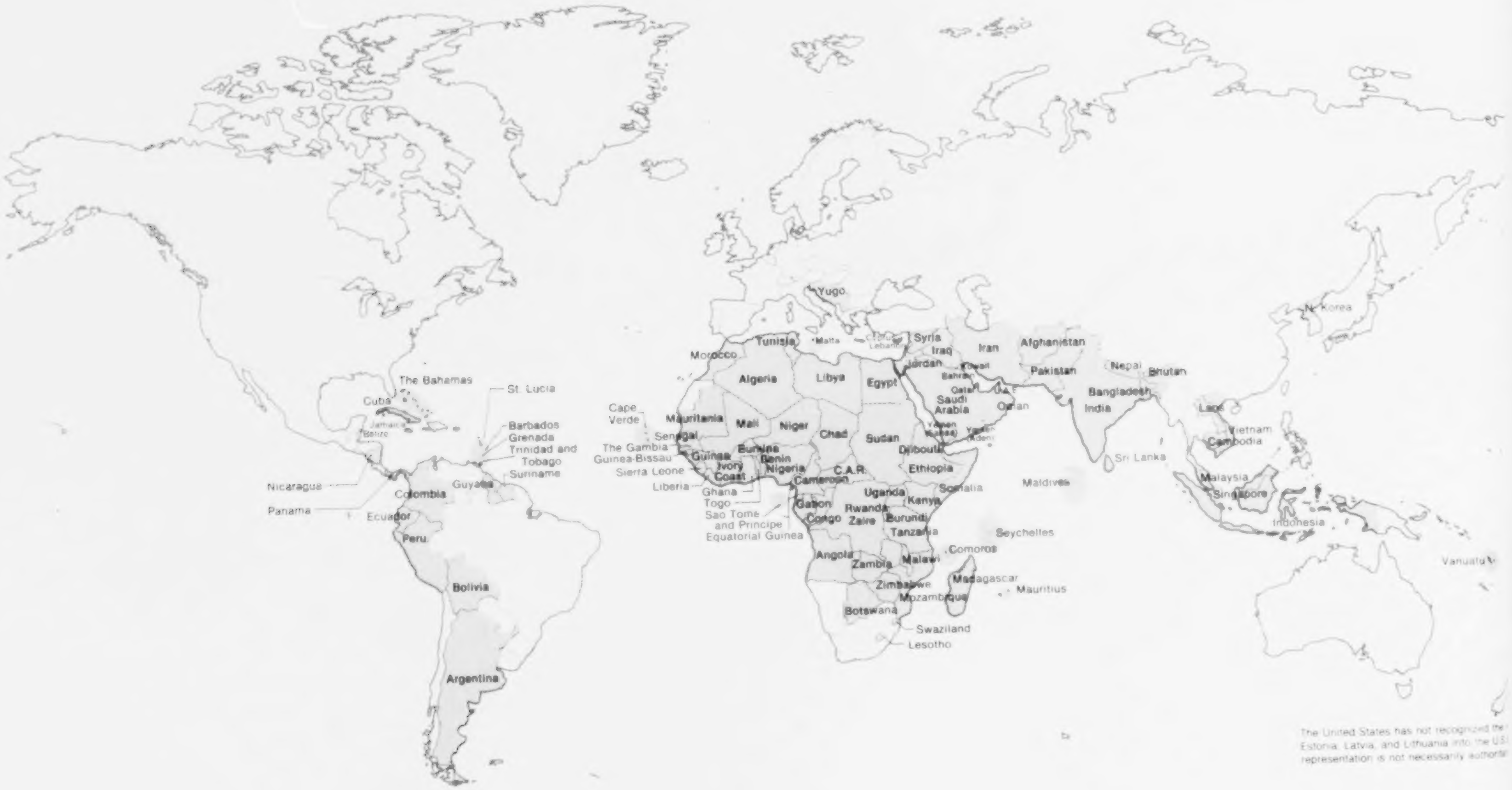
Nonaligned Movement

The Nonaligned Movement is a formal association of Third World states designed to promote the political and economic interests of developing and dependent nations. It supports efforts to remove colonial rule and stands behind the UN General Assembly's 1974 Declaration on the New International Economic Order, calling for transfer of economic resources to the Third World. The term "nonaligned" referred originally to the position of neutrality between East and West adopted by many new and developing countries in the 1950s.

The present organization dates from the 1961 Belgrade conference sponsored by Yugoslavia, Egypt, and India.

The movement's membership is not open to all developing countries. Although North Korea was granted membership in 1975, South Korea and the Philippines were rejected on the grounds of their close alignment with the United States. Two members, Cuba and Vietnam, belong to the Council for Mutual Economic Assistance.

Members: Afghanistan, Algeria, Angola, Argentina, The Bahamas, Bahrain, Bangladesh, Barbados, Belize, Benin, Bhutan, Bolivia, Botswana, Burkina, Burundi, Cambodia, Cameroon, Cape Verde, Central African Republic, Chad, Colombia, Comoros, Congo, Cuba, Cyprus, Djibouti, Ecuador, Egypt, Equatorial Guinea, Ethiopia, Gabon, The Gambia, Ghana, Grenada, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Guyana, India, Indonesia, Iran, Iraq, Ivory Coast, Jamaica, Jordan, Kenya, North Korea, Kuwait, Laos, Lebanon, Lesotho, Liberia, Libya, Madagascar, Malawi, Malaysia, Maldives, Mali, Malta, Mauritania, Mauritius, Mor Mozambique, Nepal, Nicaragua, N Nigeria, Oman, Pakistan, Palestin Liberation Organization, Panama, Qatar, Rwanda, St. Lucia, Sao To and Principe, Saudi Arabia, Seneg Seychelles, Sierra Leone, Singapo Somalia, Sri Lanka, Sudan, South Africa People's Organization, Swa Suriname, Syria, Tanzania, Togo, Trinidad and Tobago, Tunisia, Ug United Arab Emirates, Vanuatu, nam, Yemen (Aden), Yemen (San Yugoslavia, Zaire, Zambia, Zimba


The Bahamas
St. Lucia
Cuba
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Belize
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Trinidad and Tobago
Suriname
Nicaragua
Panama
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Colombia
Ecuador
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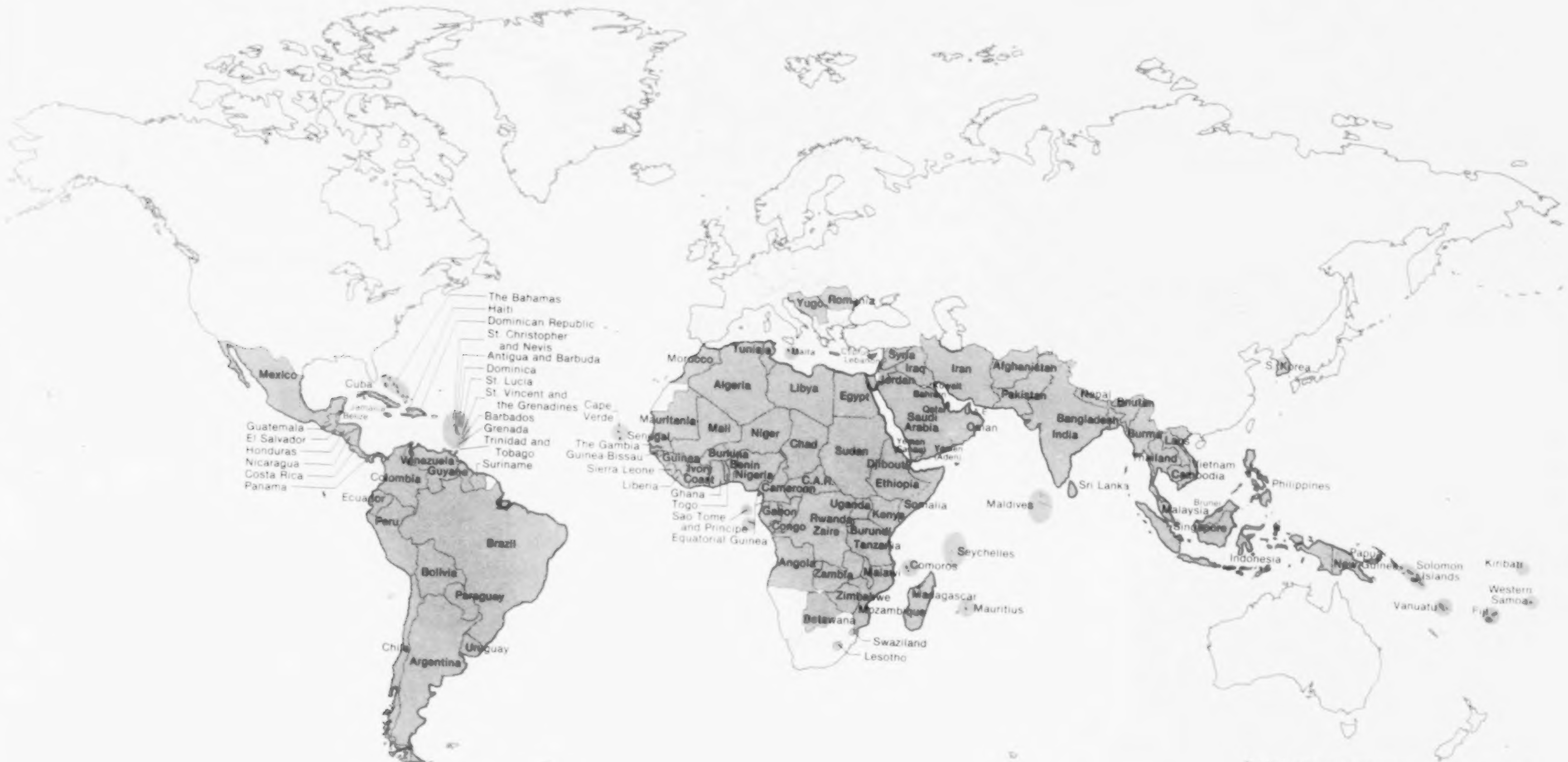
Argentina
Cape Verde
The Gambia
Guinea-Bissau
Sierra Leone
Liberia
Ghana
Togo
Sao Tome and Principe
Equatorial Guinea
Yugo
Tunisia
Malta
Cyprus
Lebanon
Syria
Iraq
Iran
Afghanistan
Morocco
Jordan
Kuwait
Bahrain
Pakistan
Nepal
Bhutan
Algeria
Libya
Egypt
Qatar
U.A.E.
Saudi Arabia
Oman
Bangladesh
India
Mauritania
Mali
Niger
Chad
Sudan
Yemen (Sanaa)
Yemen (Aden)
Senegal
Guinea
Burkina
Benin
Ivory Coast
Nigeria
Djibouti
C.A.R.
Cameroon
Ethiopia
Somalia
Uganda
Kenya
Gabon
Rwanda
Congo
Zaire
Burundi
Tanzania
Angola
Zambia
Malawi
Comoros
Seychelles
Madagascar
Mauritius
Zimbabwe
Mozambique
Botswana
Swaziland
Lesotho
Maldives
Sri Lanka
N. Korea
Laos
Vietnam
Cambodia
Malaysia
Singapore
Indonesia
Vanuatu

The United States has not recognized the Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania into the U.S representation is not necessarily authorit

Group of 77

The Group of 77 (G-77) is the Third World's economic advocate. It is more loosely organized than the Nonaligned Movement and, with more than 120 members in 1985, comprises virtually all developing countries. The term originated with the 77 nations supporting a common program at the first meetings of the UN Conference on Trade and Development in 1964. Meeting as the G-77, developing countries prepare common positions for international economic negotiations. Like the Nonaligned Movement, the G-77 advocates changes in the world economic system to promote faster growth in developing countries.

Members: Afghanistan, Algeria, Angola, Antigua and Barbuda, Argentina, The Bahamas, Bahrain, Bangladesh, Barbados, Belize, Benin, Bhutan, Bolivia, Botswana, Brazil, Brunei, Burkina, Burma, Burundi, Cambodia, Cameroon, Cape Verde, Central African Republic, Chad, Chile, Colombia, Comoros, Congo, Costa Rica, Cuba, Cyprus, Djibouti, Dominica, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Egypt, El Salvador, Equatorial Guinea, Ethiopia, Fiji, Gabon, The Gambia, Ghana, Grenada, Guatemala, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Guyana, Haiti, Honduras, India, Indonesia, Iran, Iraq, Ivory Coast, Jamaica, Jordan, Kenya, Kiribati, South Korea, Kuwait, Laos, Lebanon, Lesotho, Liberia, Libya, Madagascar, Malawi, Malaysia, Maldives, Mali, Malta, Mauritania, Mauritius, Mexico, Morocco, Mozambique, Nepal, Nicaragua, Niger, Nigeria, Oman, Pakistan, Panama, Papua New Guinea, Paraguay, Peru, Philippines, Qatar, Romania, Rwanda, St. Christopher and Nevis, St. Lucia, St. Vincent and the Grenadines, Sao Tome and Principe, Saudi Arabia, Senegal, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, Singapore, Solomon Islands, Somalia, Sri Lanka, Sudan, Suriname, Swaziland, Syria, Thailand, Togo, Trinidad and Tobago, Tunisia, Uganda, United Arab Emirates, Tanzania, Uruguay, Vanuatu, Venezuela, Vietnam, Western Samoa, Yemen (Aden), Yemen (Sanaa), Yugoslavia, Zaire, Zambia, Zimbabwe.


The Bahamas
Haiti
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Morocco
Tunisia
Malta
Cyprus
Lebanon
Yugo.
Romania
Algeria
Libya
Egypt
Mauritania
Mali
Niger
Chad
Sudan
Senegal
The Gambia
Guinea-Bissau
Guinea
Sierra Leone
Liberia
Ivory Coast
Burkina
Benin
Nigeria
Ghana
Togo
Sao Tome and Principe
Equatorial Guinea
Cameroon
C.A.R.
Djibouti
Ethiopia
Somalia
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Burundi
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Zambia
Malawi
Comoros
Seychelles
Zimbabwe
Mozambique
Madagascar
Mauritius
Botswana
Swaziland
Lesotho
Syria
Iraq
Jordan
Iran
Kuwait
Bahrain
Qatar
Saudi Arabia
U.A.E.
Oman
Yemen (Sanaa)
Yemen (Aden)
Afghanistan
Pakistan
Nepal
Bhutan
Bangladesh
India
Maldives
Sri Lanka
Burma
Laos
Thailand
Vietnam
Cambodia
S. Korea
Philippines
Brunei
Malaysia
Singapore
Indonesia
Papua New Guinea
Solomon Islands
Kiribati
Vanuatu
Fiji
Western Samoa

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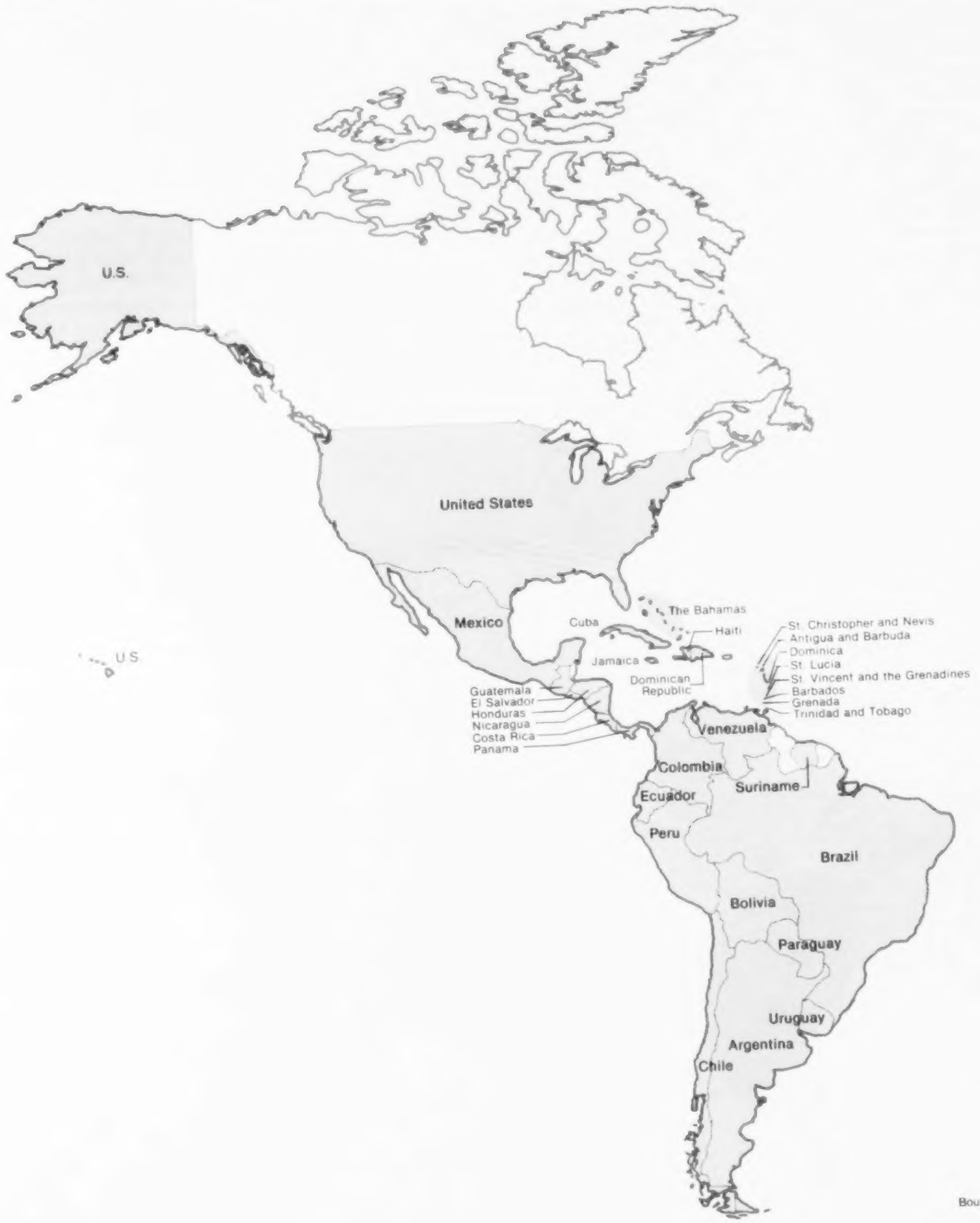
Organization of American States (OAS)

The OAS is the world's oldest regional association. In 1890 in Washington, D.C., the Western Hemisphere republics created a bureau later known as the Pan American Union to promote cultural, economic, legal, and social cooperation. The OAS, created in 1948, reinforced the existing structure and confirmed the mutual defense commitment under the Inter-American Treaty of Reciprocal Assistance (Rio treaty) signed in 1947.

Members: Antigua and Barbuda, Argentina, The Bahamas, Barbados, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba (participation suspended), Dominica, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Grenada, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Jamaica, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, St. Christopher and Nevis, St. Lucia, St. Vincent and the Grenadines, Suriname, Trinidad and Tobago, Uruguay, United States, Venezuela.


U.S.
United States
U.S.
Mexico
Cuba
The Bahamas
Haiti
Jamaica
Dominican Republic
St. Christopher and Nevis
Antigua and Barbuda
Dominica
St. Lucia
St. Vincent and the Grenadines
Barbados
Grenada
Trinidad and Tobago
Guatemala
El Salvador
Honduras
Nicaragua
Costa Rica
Panama
Venezuela
Colombia
Suriname
Ecuador
Peru
Brazil
Bolivia
Paraguay
Uruguay
Argentina
Chile

Boundary representation is not necess

Latin American Economic Associations

All Latin American and Caribbean countries belong to the Latin American Economic System (SELA), a permanent organization set up in 1975 to establish a common Latin American and Caribbean policy on international economic issues. Other regional or subregional organizations include:

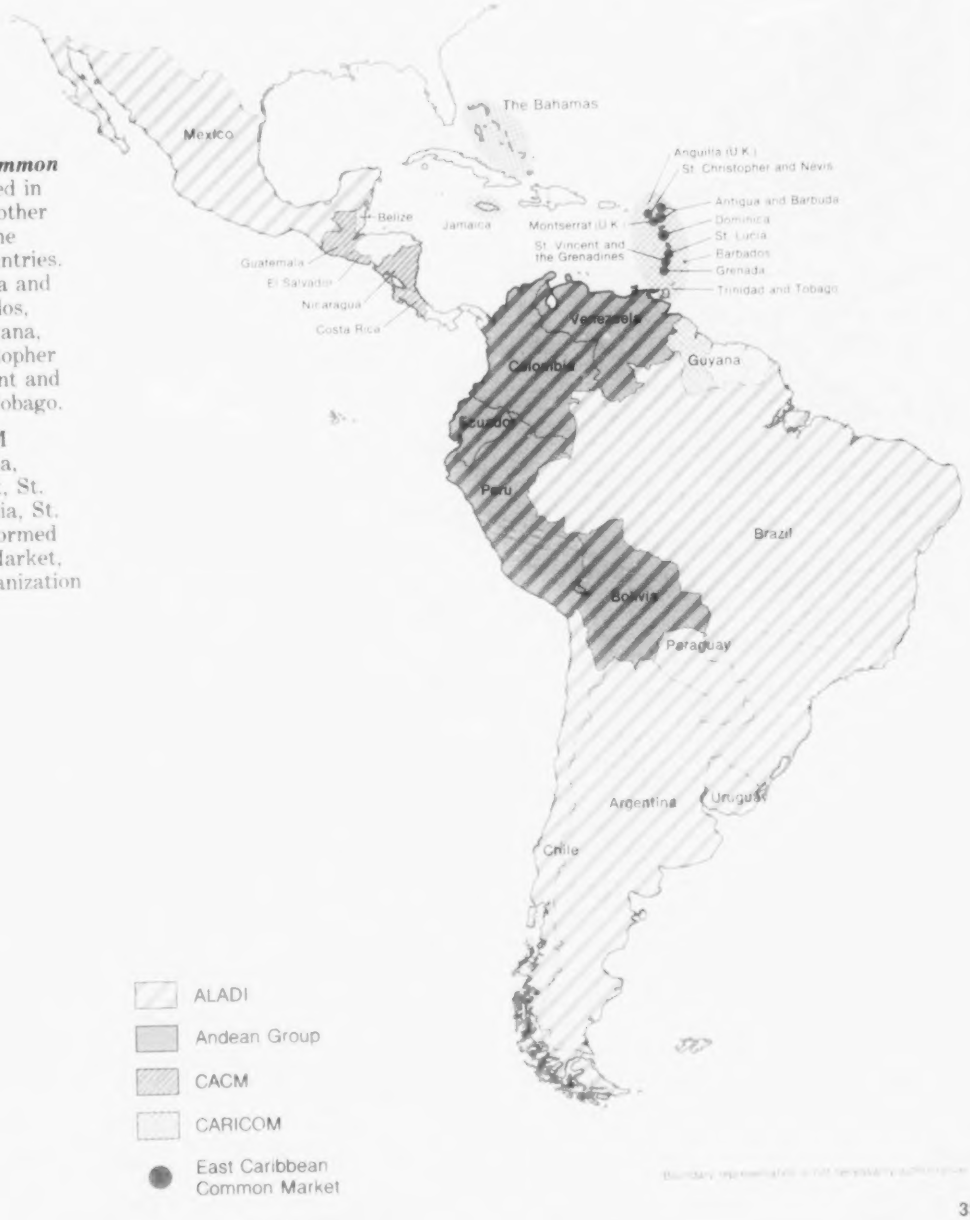
Central American Common Market (CACM): Founded in 1960 to establish a free-trade zone.
Members: Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala, Nicaragua.

Latin American Integration Association (ALADI): Founded in 1980 to replace the Latin American Free Trade Association (LAFTA) established in 1961 by countries not in the CACM. ALADI promotes economic integration and development but with less emphasis on free trade.
Members: Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Ecuador, Mexico, Paraguay, Peru, Uruguay, Venezuela.

Andean Group: Formed in 1969 by medium-sized LAFTA countries to achieve swifter integration than was possible for LAFTA as a whole. Chile withdrew in 1976 because of differences over foreign investment policy.
Members: Bolivia, Colombia, Ecuador, Peru, Venezuela.

Caribbean Community and Common Market (CARICOM): Established in 1973 to promote economic and other cooperative endeavors among the English-speaking Caribbean countries.
Members: Anguilla, Antigua and Barbuda, The Bahamas, Barbados, Belize, Dominica, Grenada, Guyana, Jamaica, Montserrat, St. Christopher and Nevis, St. Lucia, St. Vincent and the Grenadines, Trinidad and Tobago.

Seven of the smaller CARICOM members—Antigua and Barbuda, Dominica, Grenada, Montserrat, St. Christopher and Nevis, St. Lucia, St. Vincent and the Grenadines—formed the East Caribbean Common Market, now incorporated into the Organization of East Caribbean States.


Mexico
The Bahamas
Anguilla (U.K.)
St. Christopher and Nevis
Antigua and Barbuda
Dominica
St. Lucia
Barbados
Grenada
Trinidad and Tobago
Montserrat (U.K.)
St. Vincent and the Grenadines
Jamaica
Belize
Guatemala
El Salvador
Nicaragua
Costa Rica
Venezuela
Colombia
Guyana
Ecuador
Peru
Brazil
Bolivia
Paraguay
Argentina
Uruguay
Chile
ALADI
Andean Group
CACM
CARICOM
East Caribbean Common Market

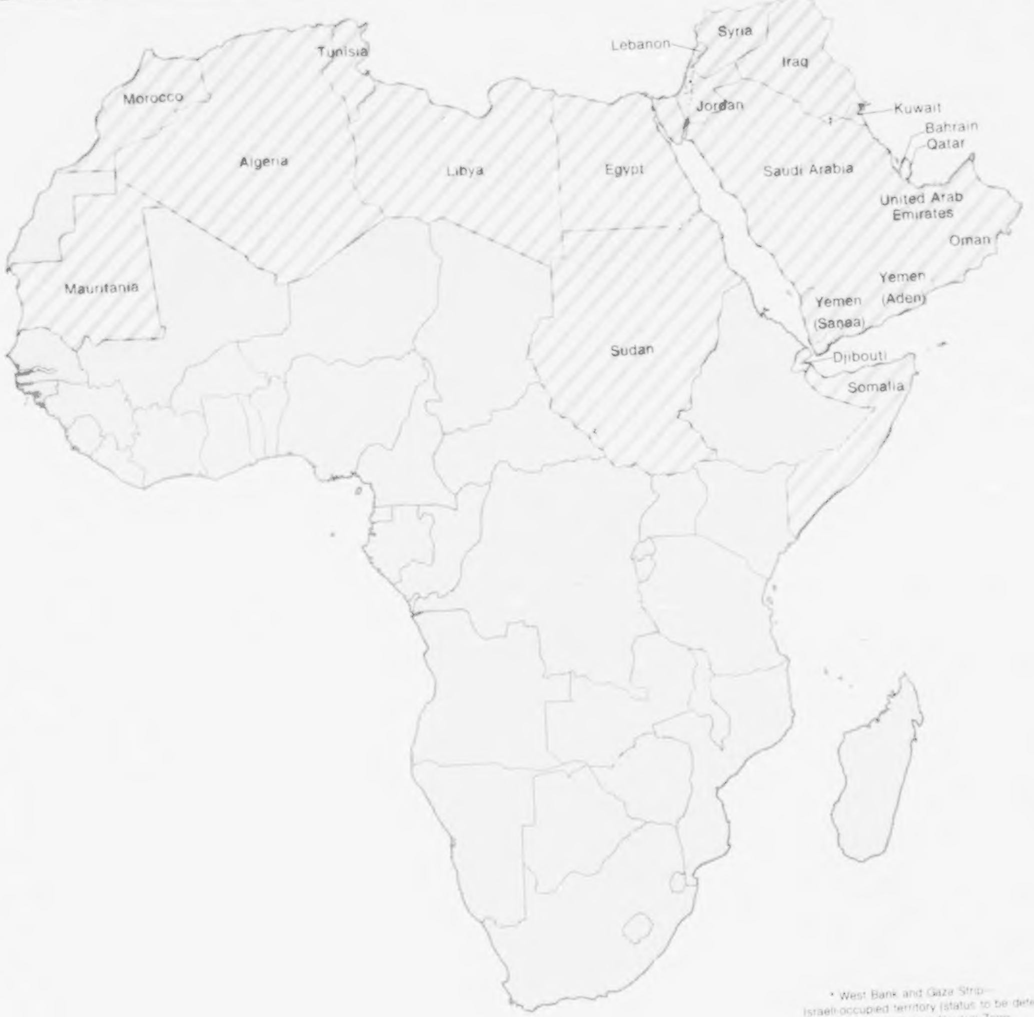
Boundary representation is not necessarily authoritative

League of Arab States

The League of Arab States (Arab League) was founded in 1945 to promote wide cooperation among countries of Arabic language or culture. Membership now consists of 21 sovereign states and the Palestine Liberation Organization. The machinery consists of summit conferences (meetings of heads of state), the Arab Council (biyearly meetings of foreign ministers), permanent specialized councils and commissions, and a permanent secretariat.

In 1964 the Arab League established the Council of Arab Economic Unity to promote an Arab Common Market and joint commercial ventures. The League also has established several subsidiary facilities, using funds provided by the members, to promote economic and social development in Arab states and in Africa.

Members: Algeria, Bahrain, Djibouti, Egypt (suspended in 1979), Iraq, Jordan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Libya, Mauritania, Morocco, Oman, Palestine Liberation Organization, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Somalia, Sudan, Syria, Tunisia, United Arab Emirates, Yemen (Aden), Yemen (Sanaa).


Tunisia
Lebanon
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Iraq
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Kuwait
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Qatar
Algeria
Libya
Egypt
Saudi Arabia
United Arab Emirates
Oman
Mauritania
Yemen (Aden)
Yemen (Sanaa)
Sudan
Djibouti
Somalia

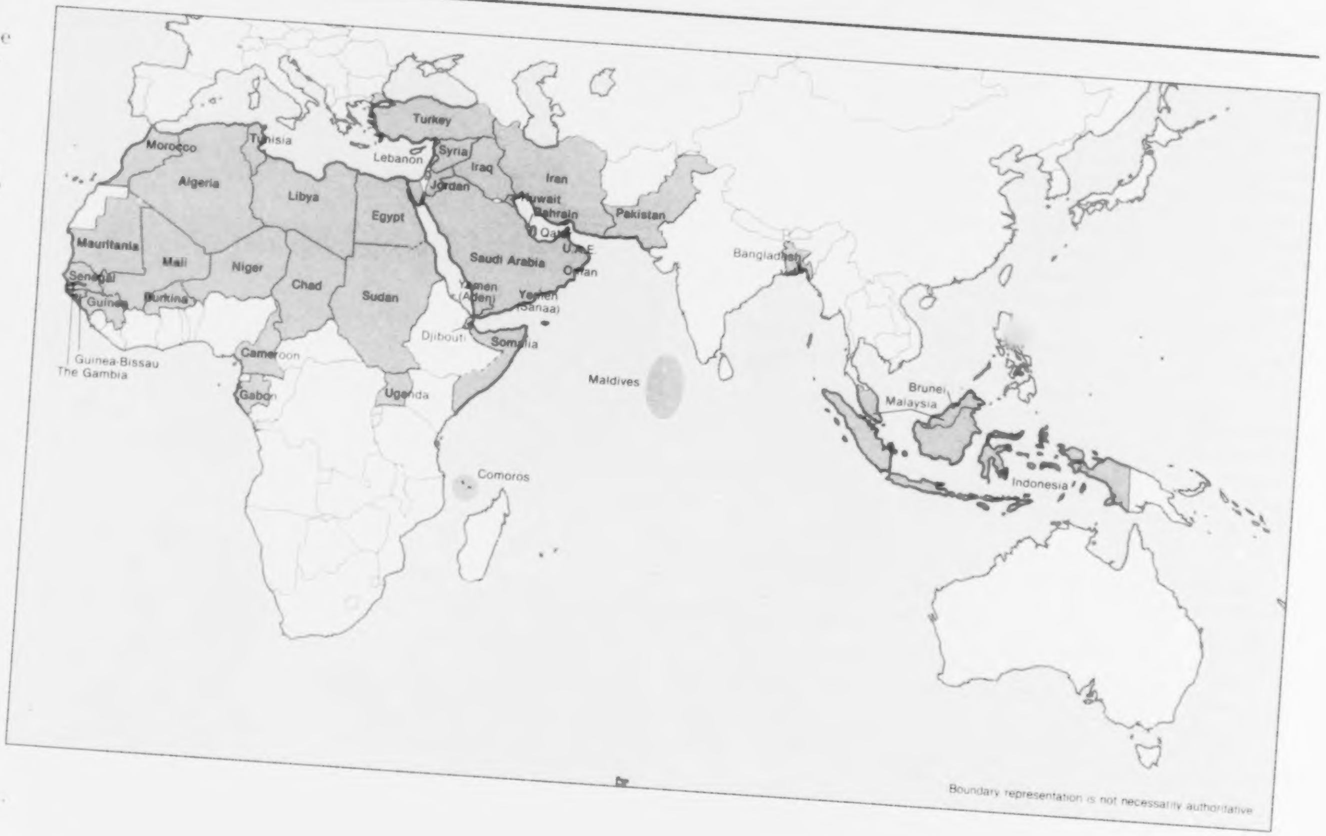
* West Bank and Gaza Strip—Israeli-occupied territory (status to be determined).
† Iraq-Saudi Arabia Neutral Zone

Names and boundary representation are not necessarily authoritative.

Organization of the Islamic Conference

Founded in 1971, the Organization of the Islamic Conference originated in the 1969 Islamic summit called in response to the burning of the Al Aksa Mosque in Jerusalem. Membership is open to nations with substantial Muslim population. (Egypt, suspended in 1979 following the Camp David accords with Israel, was readmitted in 1984. Afghanistan was suspended in 1980 after the Soviet Union installed the Babrak Karmal regime.) The general aim is to promote Islamic solidarity. Special concerns are to generate international support for the Palestinians and coordinate efforts to safeguard Islamic holy places. Machinery includes summit meetings of heads of state or government, annual foreign minister meetings, and a permanent secretariat located in Jidda, Saudi Arabia.

Members: Algeria, Bahrain, Bangladesh, Brunei, Burkina, Cameroon, Chad, Comoros, Djibouti, Egypt, Gabon, The Gambia, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Indonesia, Iran, Iraq, Jordan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Libya, Malaysia, Maldives, Mali, Mauritania, Morocco, Niger, Oman, Pakistan, Palestine Liberation Organization, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Senegal, Somalia, Sudan, Syria, Tunisia, Turkey, Uganda, United Arab Emirates, Yemen (Aden), Yemen (Sanaa).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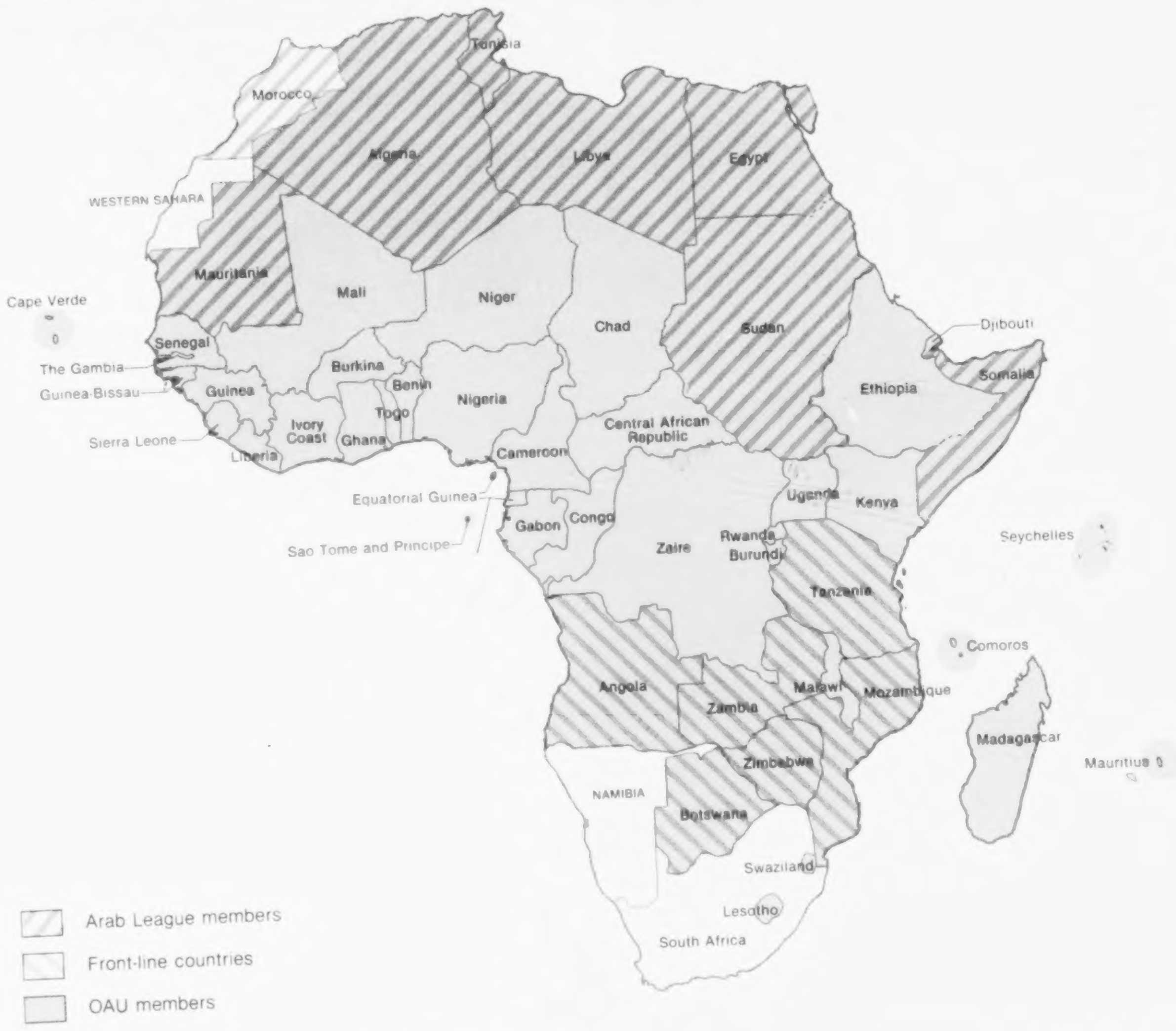
The Gambia
Cameroon
Gabon
Uganda
Djibouti
Somalia
Comoros
Turkey
Lebanon
Syria
Iraq
Jordan
Iran
Kuwait
Bahrain
Qatar
U.A.E.
Saudi Arabia
Oman
Yemen (Aden)
Yemen (Sanaa)
Pakistan
Bangladesh
Maldives
Brunei
Malaysia
Indonesia

Boundary representation is not necessarily authoritative

Organization of African Unity (OAU)

The OAU was founded in 1963 to promote self-government, respect for territorial boundaries, and social progress throughout the African Continent. Membership is open to all independent African countries except the Republic of South Africa. Morocco withdrew from the OAU and Zaire suspended its membership when the representative of Western Sahara (the Saharoui Arab Democratic Republic) was seated at the 20th OAU Assembly of Heads of State and Government in 1984. Support for black nationalist movements in southern parts of the continent is entrusted to a committee of six front-line states (Angola, Botswana, Mozambique, Tanzania, Zambia, and Zimbabwe). Nine OAU members also belong to the Arab League.

Members: Algeria, Angola, Benin, Botswana, Burkina, Burundi, Cameroon, Cape Verde, Central African Republic, Chad, Comoros, Congo, Djibouti, Egypt, Equatorial Guinea, Ethiopia, Gabon, The Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Ivory Coast, Kenya, Lesotho, Liberia, Libya, Madagascar, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, Mauritius, Mozambique, Niger, Nigeria, Rwanda, Sao Tome and Principe, Senegal, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, Somalia, Sudan, Swaziland, Tanzania, Togo, Tunisia, Uganda, Western Sahara (Saharoui Arab Democratic Republic), Zaire, Zambia, Zimbabwe.


Tunisia
Morocco
Algeria
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WESTERN SAHARA
Mauritania
Mali
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Senegal
The Gambia
Guinea-Bissau
Guinea
Sierra Leone
Liberia
Ivory Coast
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Burkina
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Cameroon
Central African Republic
Ethiopia
Djibouti
Somalia
Equatorial Guinea
Sao Tome and Principe
Gabon
Congo
Zaire
Uganda
Kenya
Rwanda
Burundi
Seychelles
Tanzania
Comoros
Angola
Zambia
Malawi
Mozambique
Madagascar
Mauritius
Zimbabwe
NAMIBIA
Botswana
Swaziland
Lesotho
South Africa
Arab League members
Front-line countries
OAU members

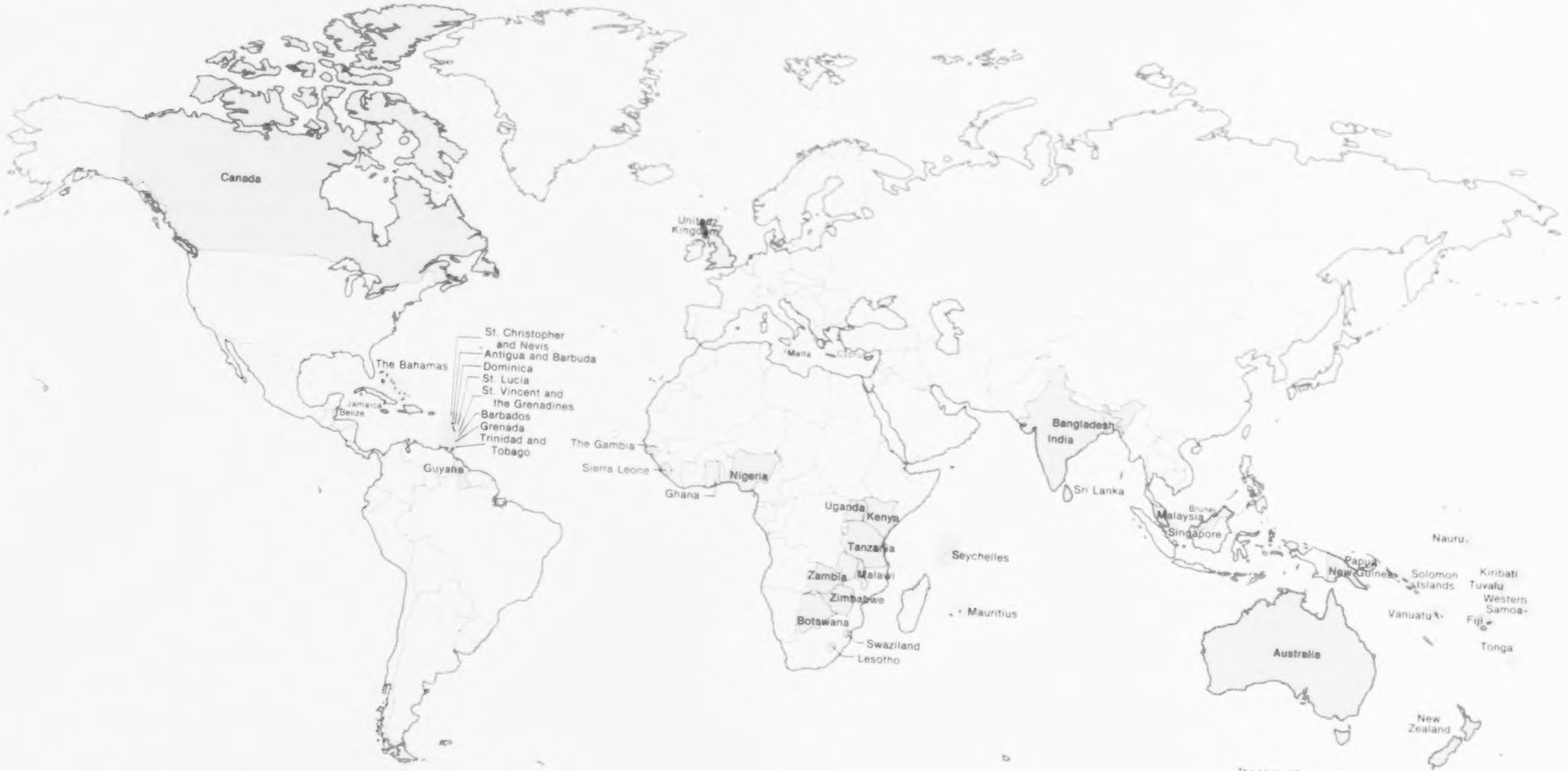
Boundary representation is not necessarily authoritative.

The Commonwealth

The Commonwealth is a free association, developed over many years, of independent countries that were once part of the British Empire. Originally known as the British Commonwealth of Nations and comprising only the United Kingdom and Australia, Canada, New Zealand, South Africa, and (for certain purposes) Ireland, the present Commonwealth consists largely of newly independent Third World countries. Chief purposes are to promote mutual economic and cultural collaboration and to exert worldwide influence in favor of self-government, racial equality, and economic measures promoting Third World development. Queen Elizabeth II is head of the Commonwealth. The organization functions through biyearly meetings of heads of government and irregular meetings of department heads supported by a permanent secretariat in London.

Ireland severed relations with the Commonwealth in 1949. South Africa withdrew in 1961 and Pakistan in 1972.

Members (including "special members"): Antigua and Barbuda, Australia, The Bahamas, Bangladesh, Barbados, Belize, Botswana, Brunei, Canada, Cyprus, Dominica, Fiji, The Gambia, Ghana, Grenada, Guyana, India, Jamaica, Kenya, Kiribati, Lesotho, Malawi, Malaysia, Malta, Mauritius, Nauru, New Zealand, Nigeria, Papua New Guinea, St. Christopher and Nevis, St. Lucia, St. Vincent and the Grenadines, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, Singapore, Solomon Islands, Sri Lanka, Swaziland, Tanzania, Tonga, Trinidad and Tobago, Tuvalu, Uganda, United Kingdom, Vanuatu, Western Samoa, Zambia, Zimbabwe.


Canada
United Kingdom
St. Christopher and Nevis
Antigua and Barbuda
Dominica
St. Lucia
St. Vincent and the Grenadines
Barbados
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Trinidad and Tobago
The Bahamas
Jamaica
Belize
Guyana
The Gambia
Sierra Leone
Ghana
Nigeria
Malta
Cyprus
Bangladesh
India
Sri Lanka
Uganda
Kenya
Tanzania
Seychelles
Zambia
Malawi
Zimbabwe
Botswana
Mauritius
Swaziland
Lesotho
Brunei
Malaysia
Singapore
Nauru
Papua New Guinea
Solomon Islands
Kiribati
Tuvalu
Western Samoa
Vanuatu
Fiji
Tonga
Australia
New Zealand

The United States has not recognized the incorporation of Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania into the U.S.S.R. Boundary representation is not necessarily authoritative.

Elements of the World Economy

This section focuses on national incomes, natural resources, and population and serves as an introduction to the sections that follow on trade and investment and development assistance.

The displays on natural resources illustrate actual or potential production of basic commodities such as food, mineral fuels, and minerals that are reducible to metals in common use. They do not include minerals that are essential to some advanced technologies and industries in the United States and other more developed countries. U.S. dependence on such items is shown in the section on trade and investment. The displays on population provide basic facts about population distribution, international migration, and demographic trends that affect the world economy.

As is illustrated by the map on page 39, the world is divided in the economic sections of the atlas into developed market economies, centrally planned economies in Europe, and developing economies. The terms industrial democracies, Soviet bloc, and Third World continue to be used for other purposes but not as formal economic classifications. Because some countries do not fit precisely into any category, arbitrary assignment often is necessary.

Developing economies are defined here as all non-European economies that have received economic assistance from members of the Organization for Economi Cooperation and Development (OECD) or from international development agencies. This category includes China and centrally planned economies such a Cuba and Vietnam as well as th many market economies that have received economic assistance. Israel, though an aid recipient, is included with the developed market economies.

World Economic Classifications

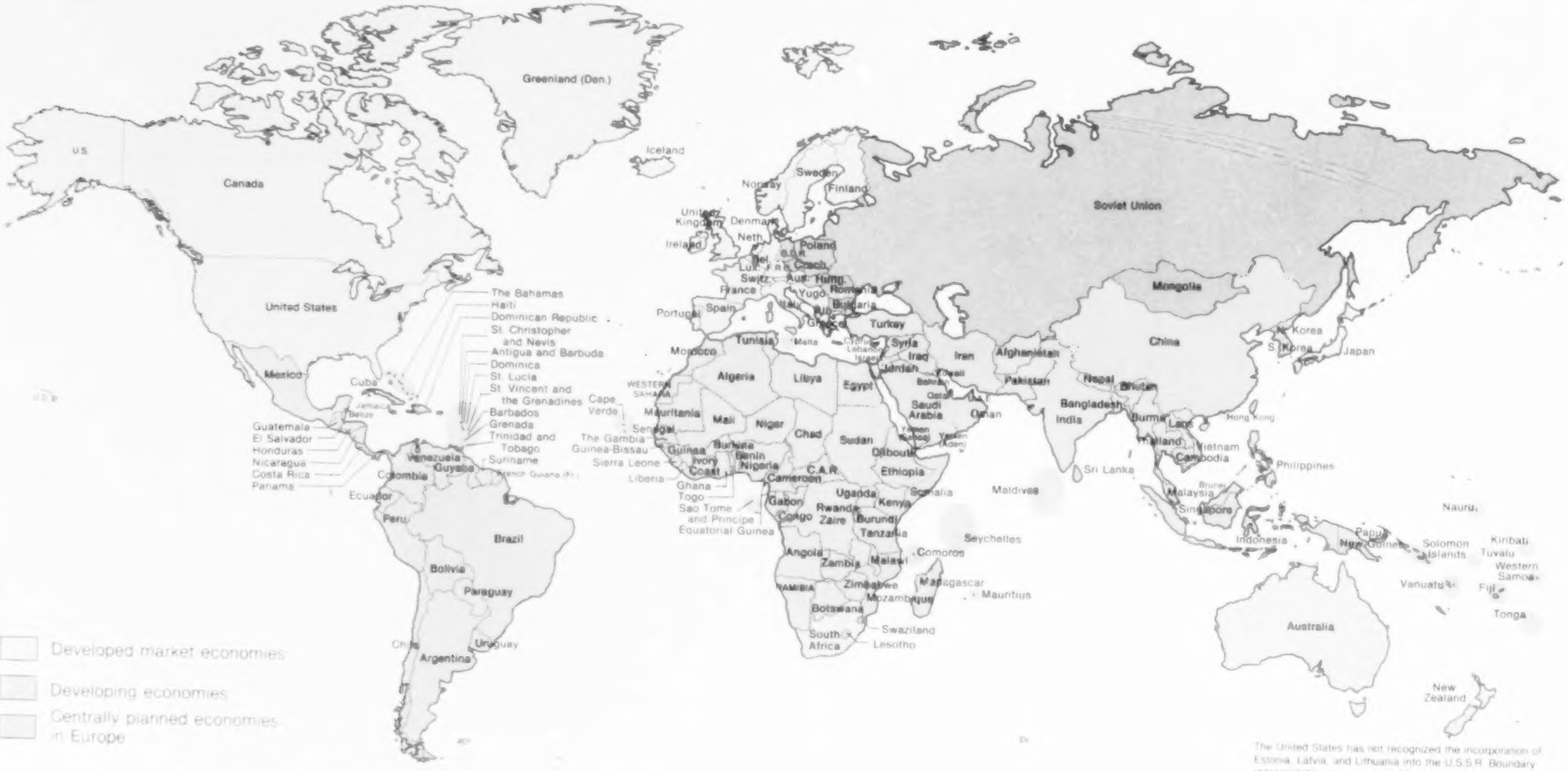
This atlas divides the world's economies into three groups:

Developed market economies—technologically advanced countries where the private sector is dominant.

Centrally planned economies in Europe—U.S.S.R. (plus Mongolia) and East European countries where government ownership and control are decisive (not including Yugoslavia, listed with developed market economies); and

Developing economies—all relatively underdeveloped non-European economies, including market economies and centrally planned economies.

Although it is common to divide the world's nations into three economic blocs, there is no settled usage as to names and which countries belong in each category. Organizations such as the World Bank, the International Monetary Fund, and the UN Conference on Trade and Development have all developed their own classification systems and terminology suitable to their needs.


Greenland (Den.)
Iceland
U.S.
Canada
United States
Mexico
Cuba
Jamaica
Belize
Guatemala
El Salvador
Honduras
Nicaragua
Costa Rica
Panama
The Bahamas
Haiti
Dominican Republic
St. Christopher and Nevis
Antigua and Barbuda
Dominica
St. Lucia
St. Vincent and the Grenadines
Barbados
Grenada
Trinidad and Tobago
Suriname
French Guiana (Fr.)
Venezuela
Guyana
Colombia
Ecuador
Peru
Brazil
Bolivia
Paraguay
Chile
Argentina
Uruguay
Norway
Sweden
Finland
United Kingdom
Ireland
Denmark
Neth.
Bel.
Lux.
F.R.G.
G.D.R.
Poland
Czech.
Switz.
France
Aus.
Hung.
Romania
Yugo.
Bulgaria
Alb.
Greece
Portugal
Spain
Italy
Malta
Turkey
Cyprus
Lebanon
Israel
Syria
Iraq
Iran
Jordan
Kuwait
Bahrain
Qatar
Saudi Arabia
Oman
Yemen
Aden
Morocco
Tunisia
Algeria
Libya
Egypt
WESTERN SAHARA
Cape Verde
Mauritania
Mali
Niger
Chad
Sudan
Senegal
The Gambia
Guinea-Bissau
Guinea
Sierra Leone
Liberia
Ivory Coast
Ghana
Togo
Burkina
Benin
Nigeria
Cameroon
C.A.R.
Sao Tome and Principe
Equatorial Guinea
Gabon
Congo
Zaire
Rwanda
Burundi
Uganda
Kenya
Ethiopia
Djibouti
Somalia
Tanzania
Angola
Zambia
Malawi
Namibia
Zimbabwe
Mozambique
Botswana
Swaziland
Lesotho
South Africa
Madagascar
Comoros
Seychelles
Mauritius
Maldives
Soviet Union
Mongolia
China
Afghanistan
Pakistan
India
Nepal
Bhutan
Bangladesh
Sri Lanka
Burma
Laos
Thailand
Vietnam
Cambodia
Hong Kong
N. Korea
S. Korea
Japan
Philippines
Malaysia
Brunei
Singapore
Indonesia
Papua New Guinea
Solomon Islands
Nauru
Kiribati
Tuvalu
Western Samoa
Vanuatu
Fiji
Tonga
Australia
New Zealand
Developed market economies
Developing economies
Centrally planned economies in Europe

The United States has not recognized the incorporation of Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania into the U.S.S.R. Boundary representation is not necessarily authoritative.

Gross National Product (GNP) by Region

GNP is a significant indicator of economic strength and development. GNP is based on the market value of all goods and services produced during the year. Per capita GNP is the average value of goods and services produced for each person.

In 1983 the United States had the world's largest GNP—$3.3 trillion. The United States consistently had the largest per capita GNP until 1974, when surpassed by Switzerland and Sweden. The highest per capita GNPs in 1983 belonged to three small countries whose income is derived almost exclusively from petroleum exports—United Arab Emirates ($21,340), Qatar ($21,170), and Brunei ($21,140).

Note: Figures for Eastern Europe and the U.S.S.R. are from CIA, *Handbook of Economic Statistics, 1984*, 1984; for other areas from *World Bank Atlas 1985*, 1985 (supplemented by U.S. Government data).

Per Capita GNP, 1983[1]

Switzerland	$16,390
United States	$14,090
Norway	$13,820
Sweden	$12,400
Luxembourg	$12,190
Canada	$12,000
Denmark	$11,490
West Germany	$11,420
Australia	$10,780
Finland	$10,440

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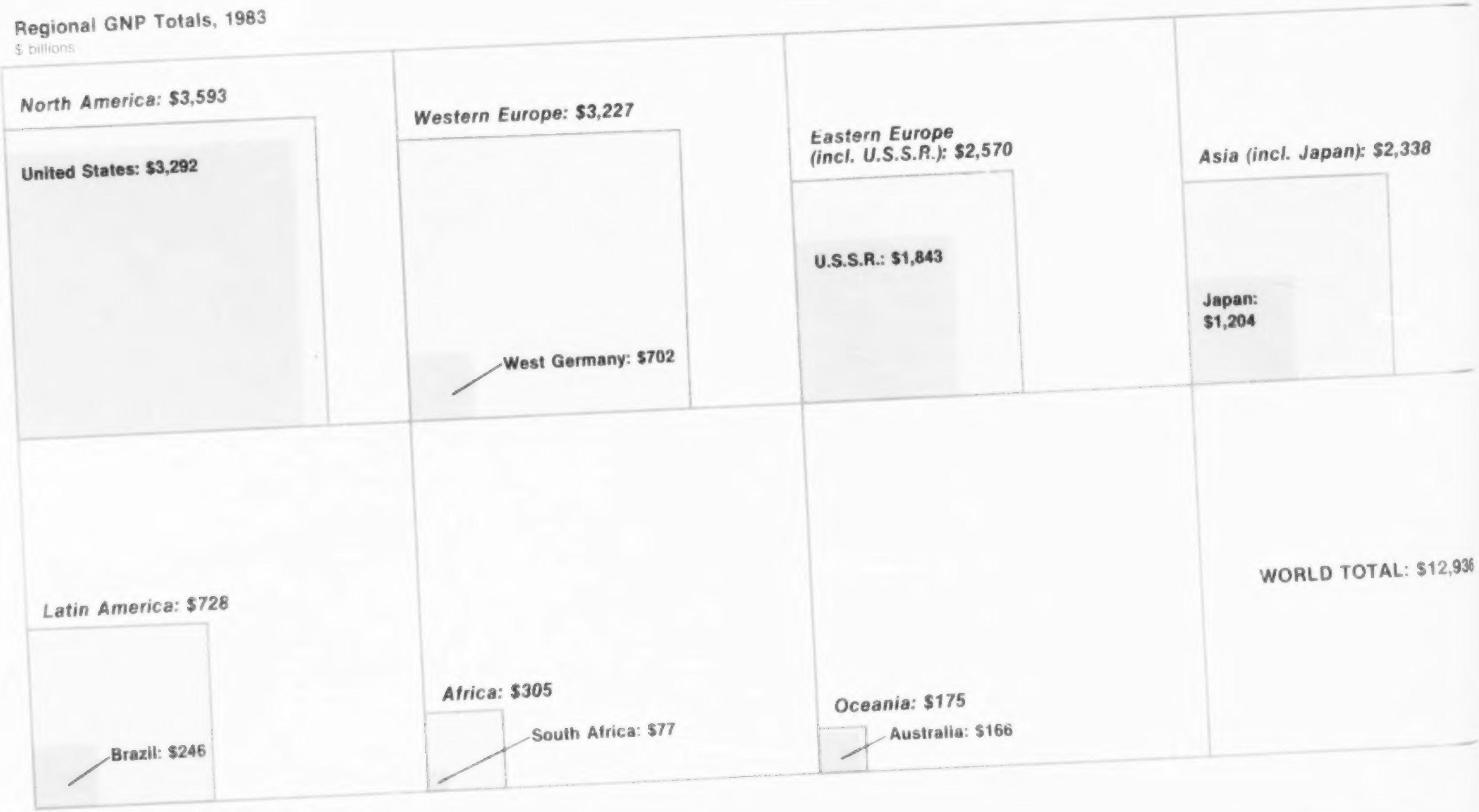
[1] Excludes oil-exporting developing countries.

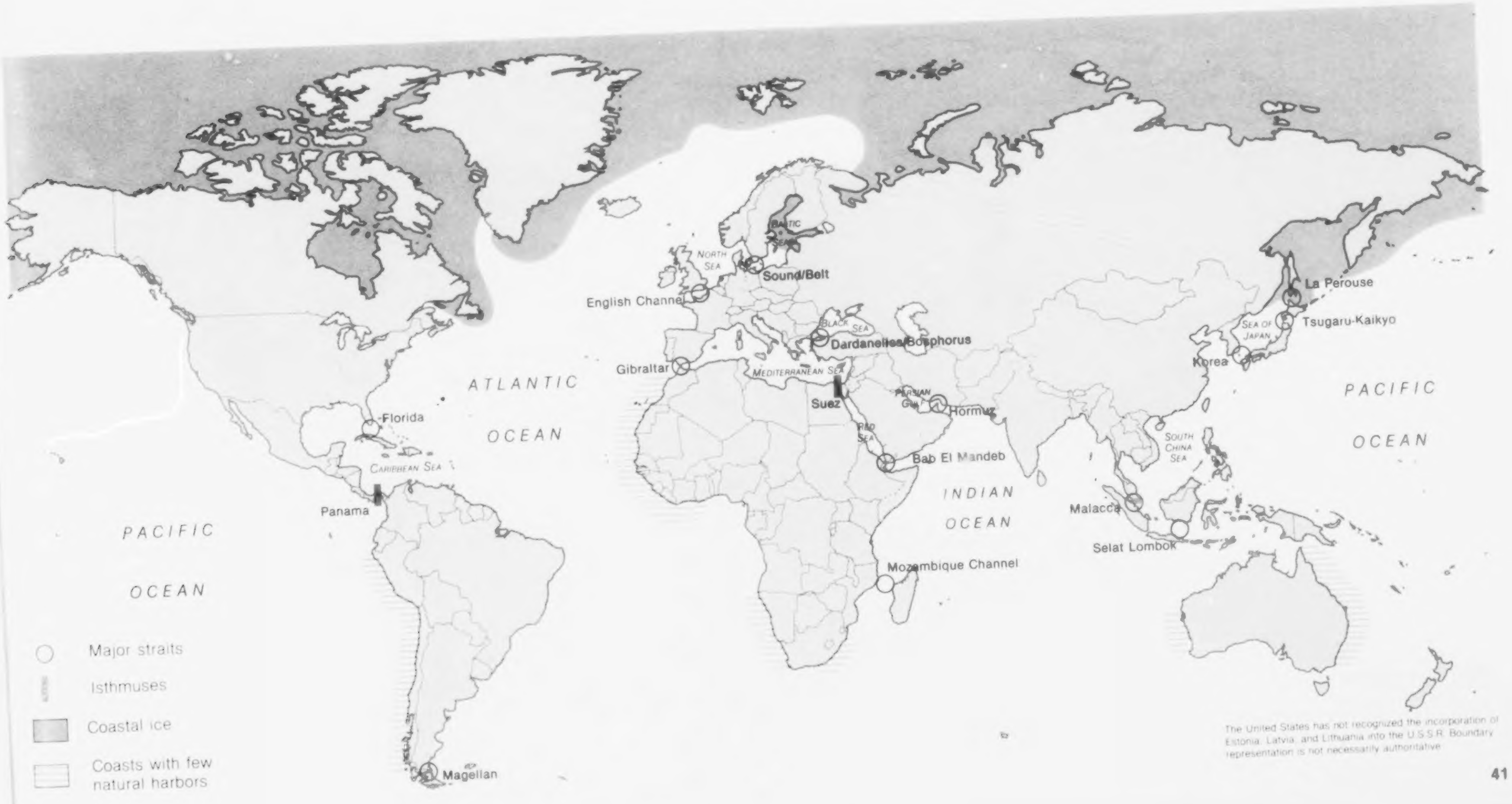
Regional GNP Totals, 1983

$ billions



Approaches to the Oceans

The United States and its allies, with numerous ports located on ice-free waters, have easy access to the seas. As manufacturing countries dependent on imported raw materials and owing their standard of living to international trade, they must have secure ocean shipping lanes and free passage through the more than 100 straits used for international navigation. Freedom of navigation on the high seas has been a cardinal doctrine of international law for more than 350 years, and agreement among the powers has maintained unencumbered passage through the straits.


Sound/Belt
Baltic Sea
North Sea
English Channel
Black Sea
Dardanelles/Bosphorus
Gibraltar
Mediterranean Sea
Suez
Persian Gulf
Hormuz
Red Sea
Bab El Mandeb
La Perouse
Sea of Japan
Tsugaru-Kaikyo
Korea
South China Sea
Malacca
Selat Lombok
Mozambique Channel
Florida
Caribbean Sea
Panama
Magellan
ATLANTIC OCEAN
PACIFIC OCEAN
INDIAN OCEAN
PACIFIC OCEAN
○ Major straits
Isthmuses
▨ Coastal ice
☐ Coasts with few natural harbors

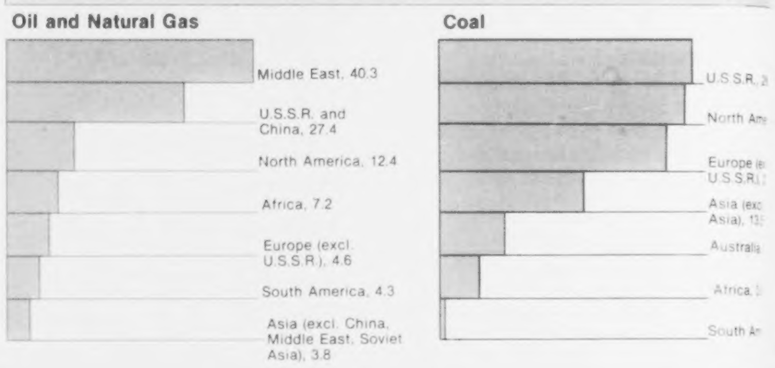
The United States has not recognized the incorporation of Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania into the U.S.S.R. Boundary representation is not necessarily authoritative.

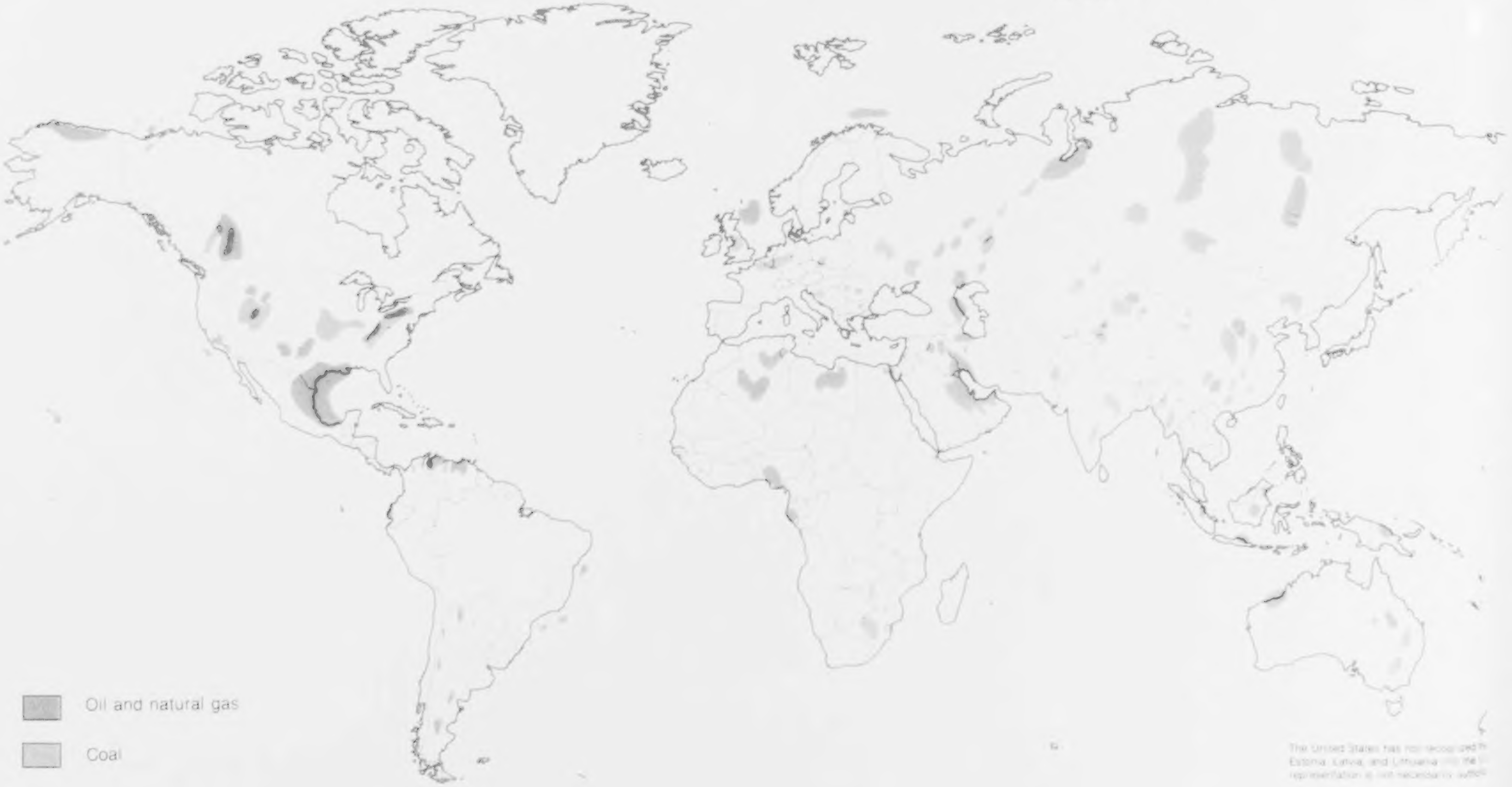
World Fossil Fuel Deposits

Fossil fuels are the world's main source of energy. Deposits are found in all continents but are not evenly distributed over the globe. At present consumption rates, known oil and gas reserves are expected to last for 30–50 years, coal reserves for at least 300.

Fossil fuels supplied 90% of world energy needs in 1978 and are expected to supply more than 75% of needs in the year 2000. The demand for coal has risen steadily since the oil price rises in the early 1970s. While coal supplied 18% of world energy needs in 1978 (compared with 54% for oil and 18% for natural gas), it is expected to supply about one-fourth of world needs in the year 2000. It is estimated that the United States will then account for about 50% of the world's coal output.

Economically Recoverable Reserves (%)



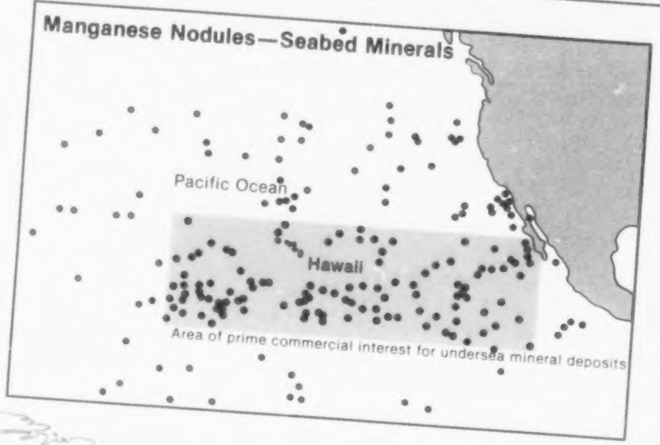


The United States has not recognized
Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania into the
representation is not necessarily

Basic Mineral Deposits

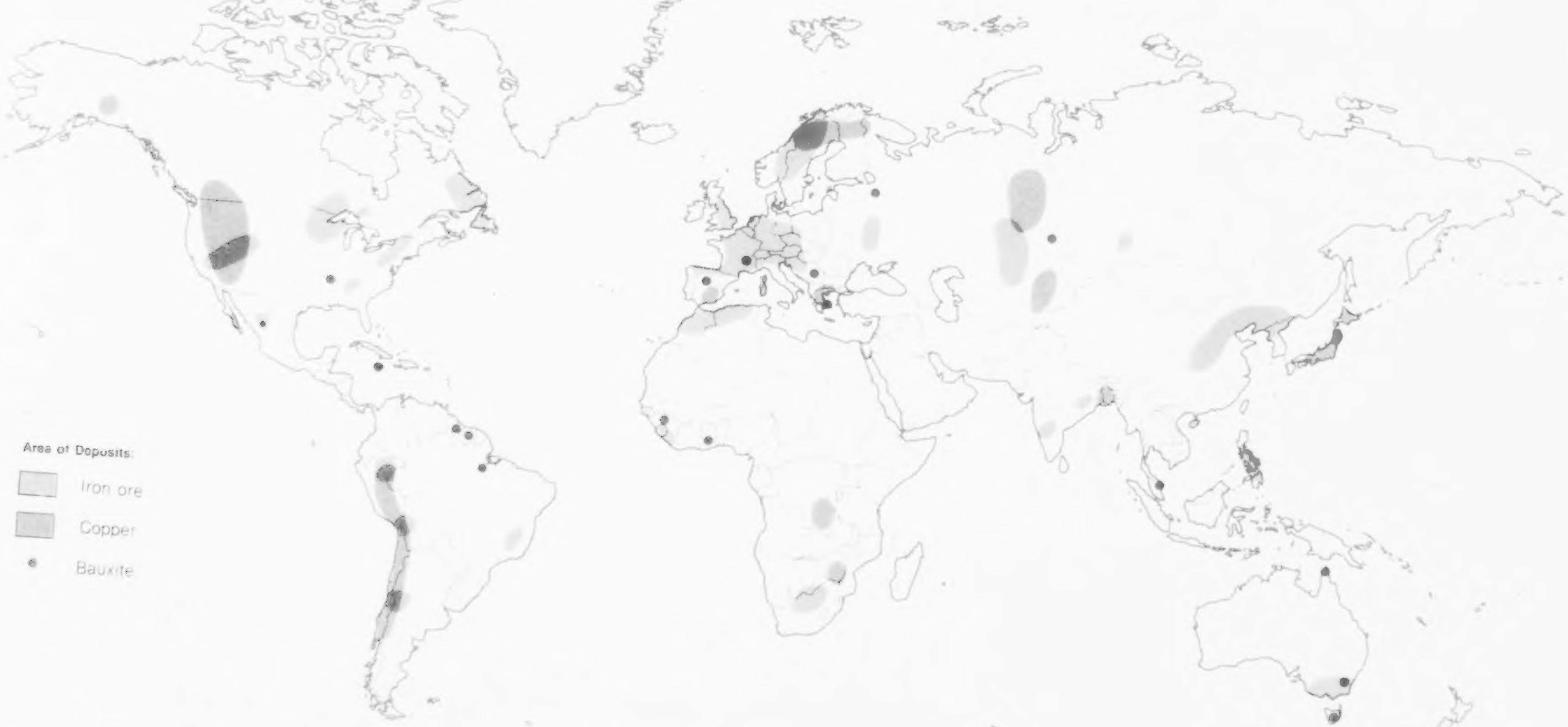
Iron, copper, and bauxite are the most useful nonfuel minerals. The metals to which they can be reduced (iron and steel, copper, aluminum and their alloys) are employed for many purposes in technologies through the world.

Iron ore occurs in large quantities in many places; the chief deposits are in Europe and North America. Copper ores also are found in all continents, with the richest reserves in southern Africa. Although bauxite occurs widely, most of the known commercial-grade deposits are in South America and the Caribbean, West Africa, and Australia.


Manganese Nodules—Seabed Minerals
Pacific Ocean
Hawaii
Area of prime commercial interest for undersea mineral deposits

Seabed Minerals

A possible future source of useful minerals is the manganese nodules present in large quantities on the ocean floor. These nodules contain several metals currently in great demand—copper, nickel, and cobalt (in addition to manganese). Large-scale mining has not yet begun. The law governing mining on the deep seabed, where most of the nodules lie, is not settled. Nor is there as yet any certainty that such mining will be economically feasible.


Area of Deposits:
Iron ore
Copper
Bauxite

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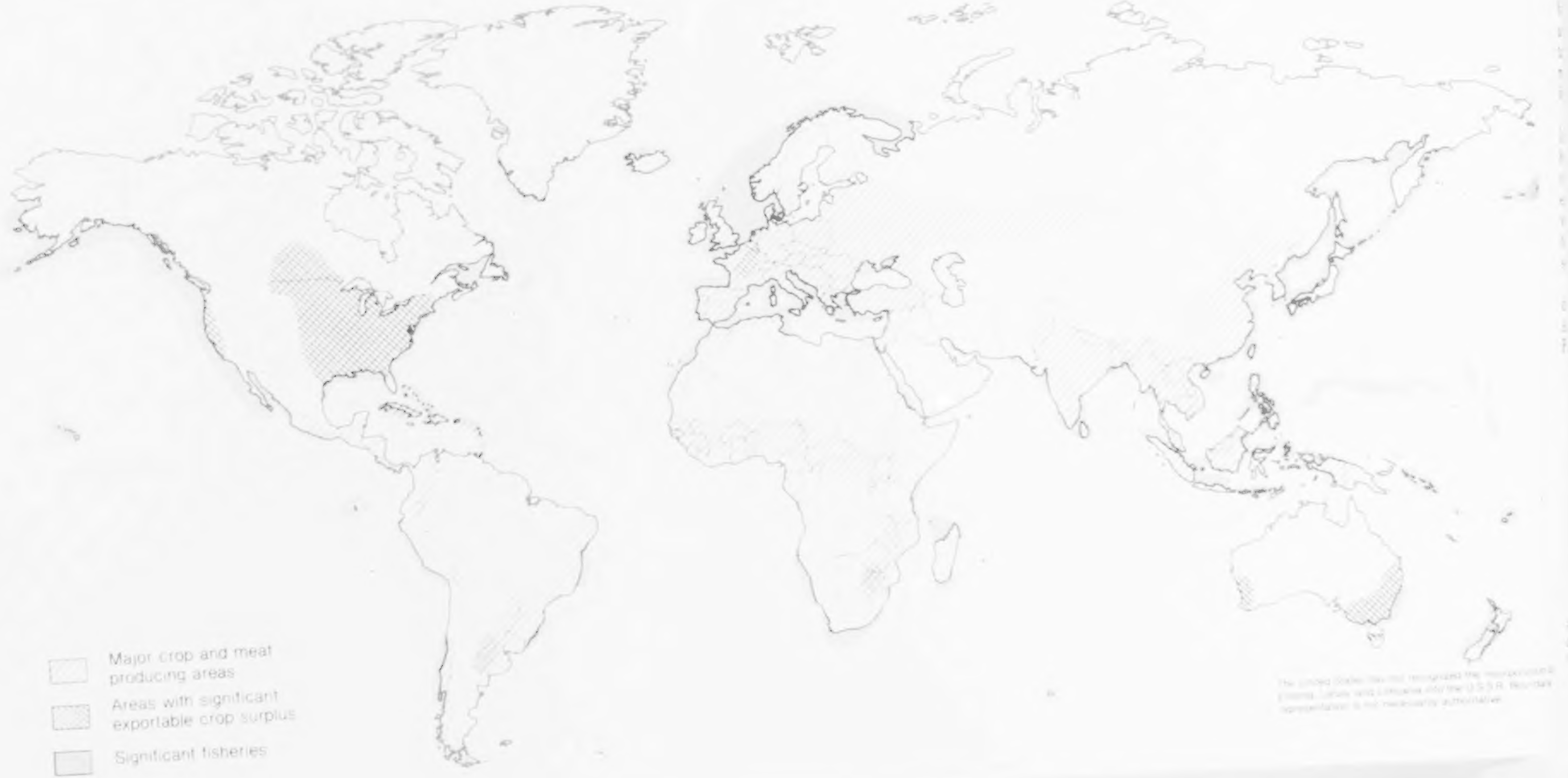
Major Food-Producing Areas

Although cropland makes up about 10% of the earth's surface, it is not a fixed quantity, as it can be reduced by erosion or diversion to other purposes or enlarged by clearance and drainage. Cropland is unevenly distributed among countries and in relation to population. The United States, the U.S.S.R., India, and China have almost half of the world's cropland. But on a per capita basis, India and China rank far below Australia, Canada, and Argentina. The United States and the U.S.S.R. have an approximately equal amount of cropland per capita.

Some heavily populated countries, such as Japan, rely to a large extent on fish products. The most abundant fishing grounds lie within 200 miles from shore. As fish are harvested here not only by people from the coastal state but from other countries employing long-distance fishing fleets, there is a long history of fishing disputes and international efforts to clarify fishing rights. Most coastal states have adopted a 200-mile exclusive economic zone in which other countries may be permitted a limited catch.


▨ Major crop and meat producing areas
▩ Areas with significant exportable crop surplus
▢ Significant fisheries

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Leading Food Producers

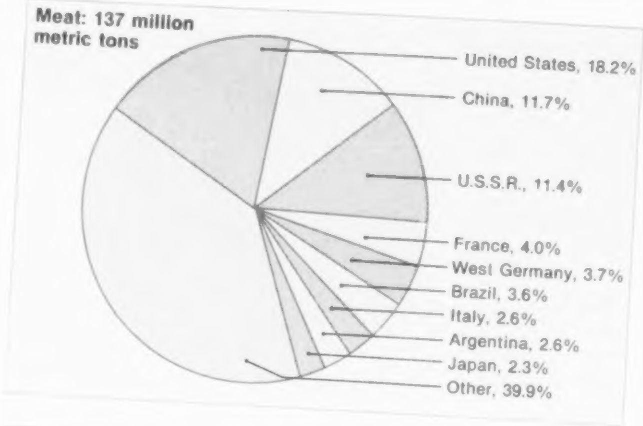
Some countries produce more food than they consume and thus have a surplus for export. This is not necessarily true of the world's largest food producers, which are predictably the most populous countries—China, India, the U.S.S.R., and the United States.

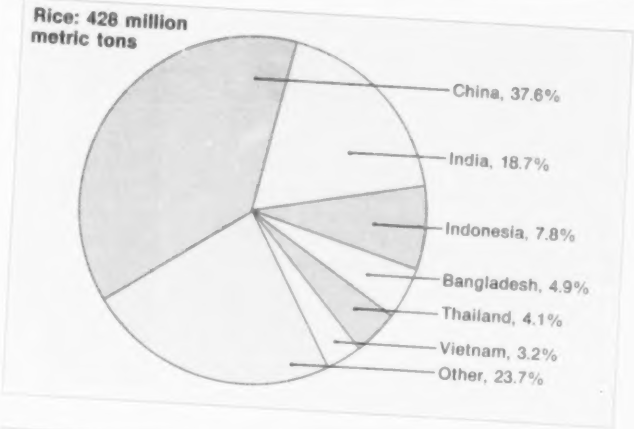
India has achieved virtual self-sufficiency in food, requiring only insignificant imports in recent years. China, with nearly one-quarter of the world's people, produces more than one-third of the rice but less than one-seventh of the wheat. The result is that China can export rice but must import wheat (although in ever-decreasing amounts).

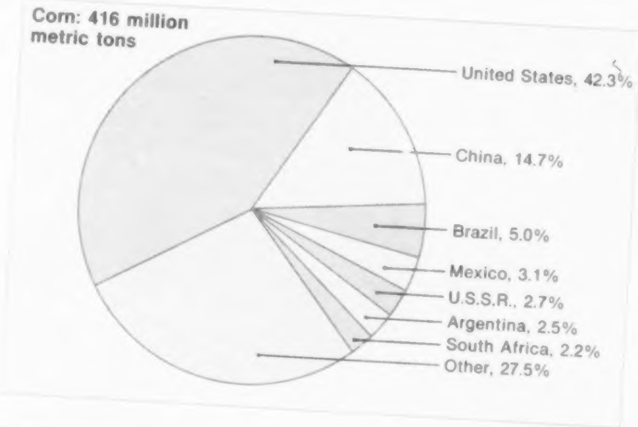
The U.S.S.R. is the world's leading wheat producer, but this does not preclude the import of high-quality grain for milling purposes to make home-produced grain of lower quality available for livestock feeding. To maintain meat production the U.S.S.R. also regularly imports corn and other feedgrains.

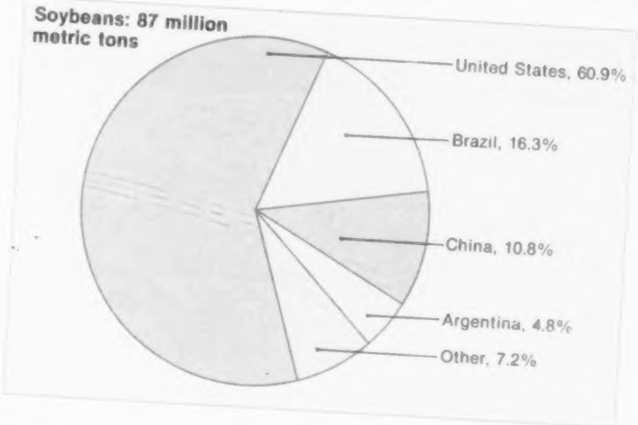
The United States—as the world's largest producer of corn, meat, and soybeans and the second largest producer of wheat—is the world's largest food exporter. More than one-half of U.S. wheat and rice, one-third of U.S. soybeans, and one-fourth of U.S. corn are sold abroad.

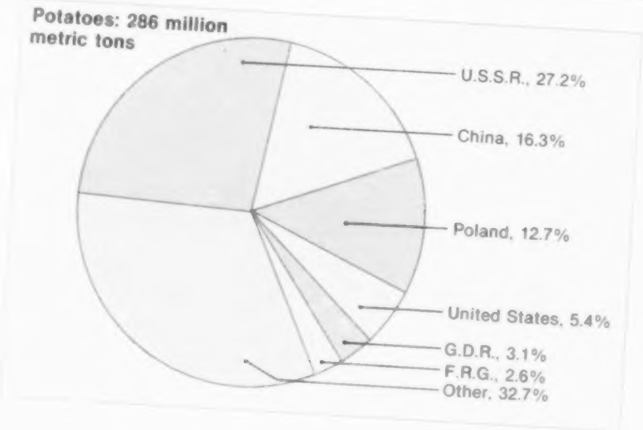
Other countries that regularly produce more food than they consume are Argentina, Australia, Canada, and France.

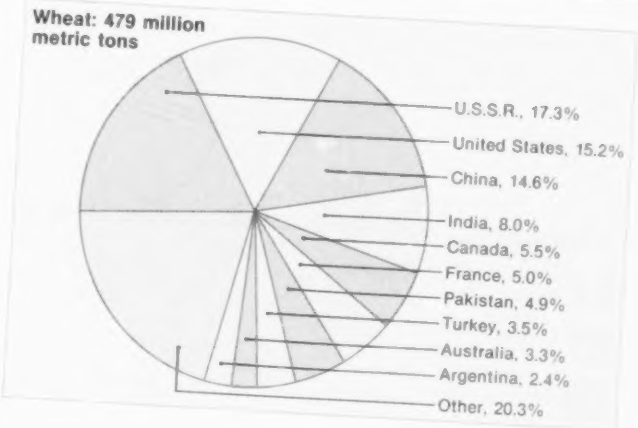

Meat: 137 million metric tons


Rice: 428 million metric tons


Corn: 416 million metric tons


Soybeans: 87 million metric tons


Potatoes: 286 million metric tons


Wheat: 479 million metric tons

Average production figures for 1981–83 based on data in Food and Agriculture Organization, *Production Yearbook 1983*

Population Spread

Population is the ultimate economic resource. For it is people who create and consume economic values. Population is unevenly distributed over the globe. This is due, first of all, to physical barriers such as extreme heat or frost and poor soil which limit the habitable, or densely habitable, areas. Distribution also is influenced by the many historical, cultural, and social factors that affect the birth rate, death rate, and migration.

The 10 Most Populous Countries

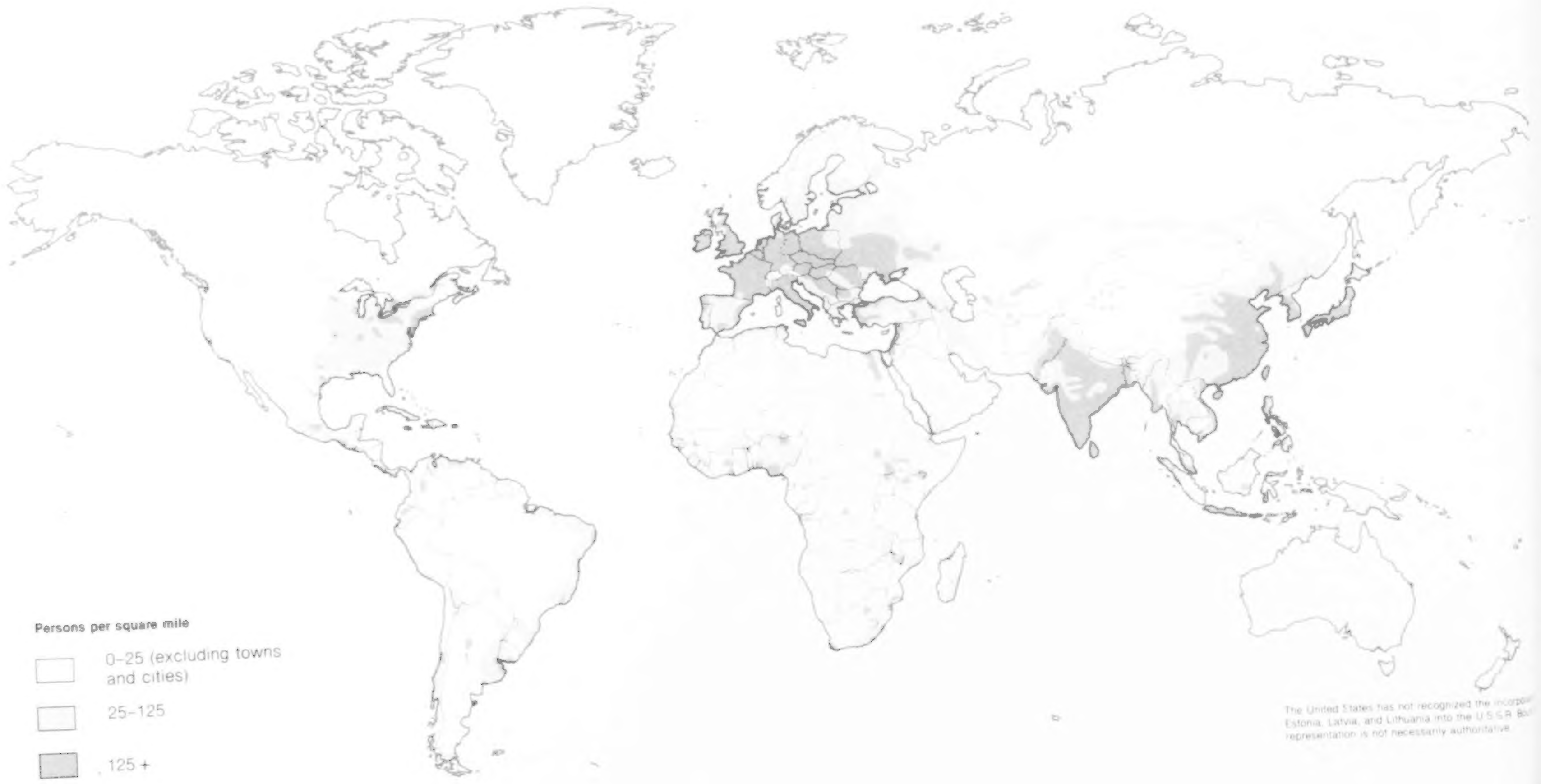
world rank, 1983

	Population	Income (per capita GNP)[1]	Steel Production[2]	Net Food importer or Exporter
China	1	127	5	Ex
India	2	129	17	Im
U.S.S.R.	3	27	1	Im
United States	4	2	3	Ex
Indonesia	5	104	—	Im
Brazil	6	52	11	Im
Japan	7	14	2	Im
Bangladesh	8	138	—	Im
Nigeria	9	95	—	Im
Pakistan	10	112	—	Im

Footnotes:

[1] Based on figures for 145 countries in *World Bank Atlas 1985* supplemented by U.S. Government data. List excludes the oil-exporting countries of Bahrain, Kuwait, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, United Arab Emirates, and Brunei and all countries with populations of less than 100,000.

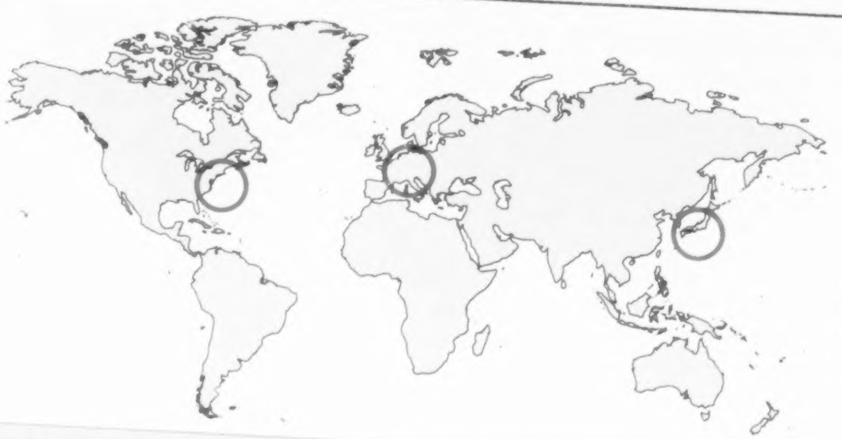
[2] Average for 1981–83; data from U.S. Bureau of Mines, *Minerals Yearbook 1983*, 1984.



The United States has not recognized the incorpo
Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania into the U.S.S.R. Bo
representation is not necessarily authoritative.

Urban Growth

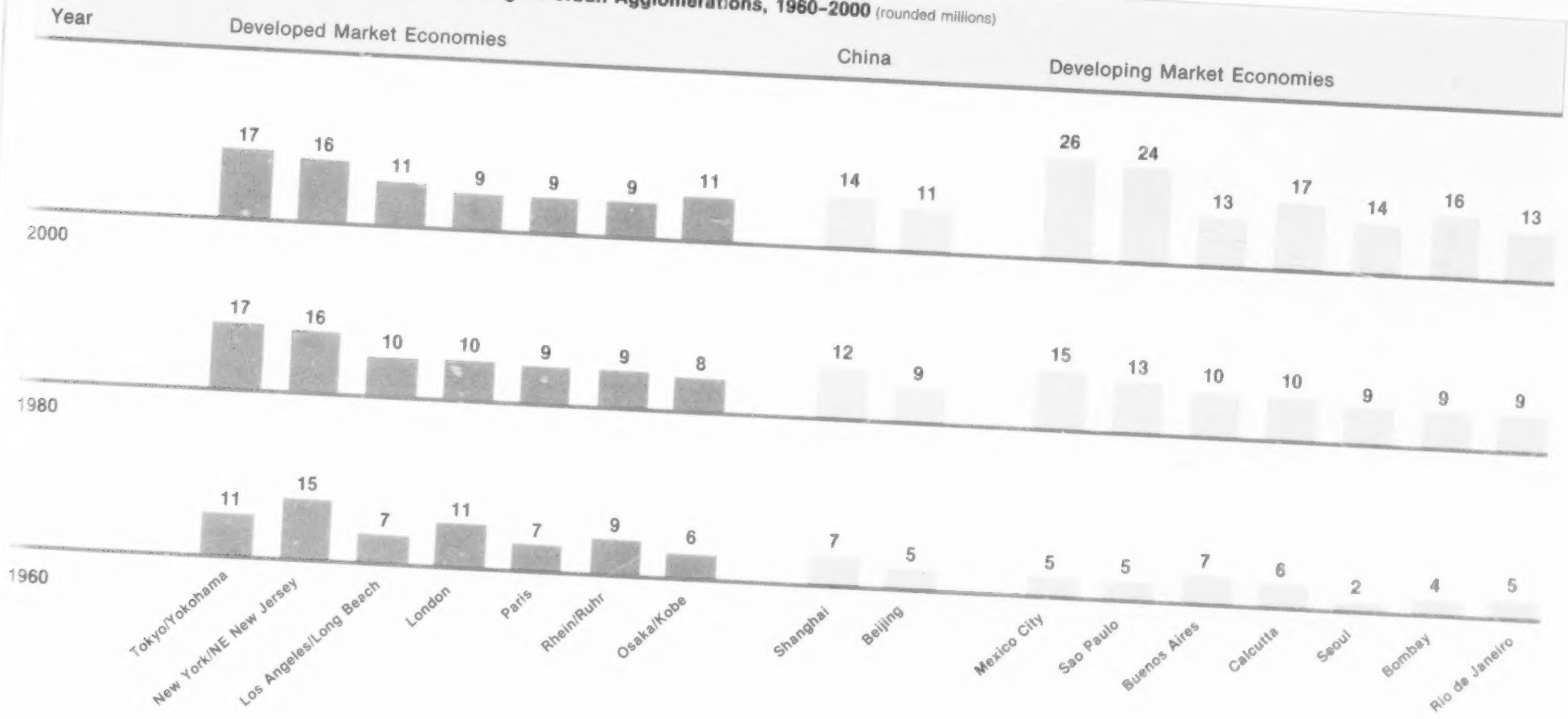
Throughout the 20th century, towns and cities everywhere have grown rapidly. According to UN projections, by the year 2005 more than 50% of the world's population will be living in urban areas. The most rapid growth is in developing countries, especially in Africa and South Asia. In Latin America, where the trend began earlier, three-fourths of the population will be living in towns and cities (about the same proportion as in Europe). The urban population rise is due to natural increase within the cities and migration of countrypeople seeking jobs.



Population and Industry

The world's major industrial regions are located in densely populated areas—Japan, Western Europe, and northeastern United States.

Growth and Projected Growth of Today's 16 Largest Urban Agglomerations, 1960–2000 (rounded millions)

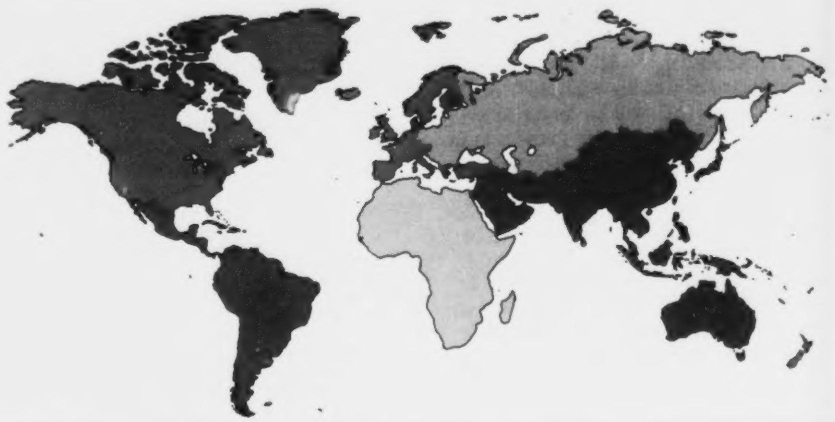


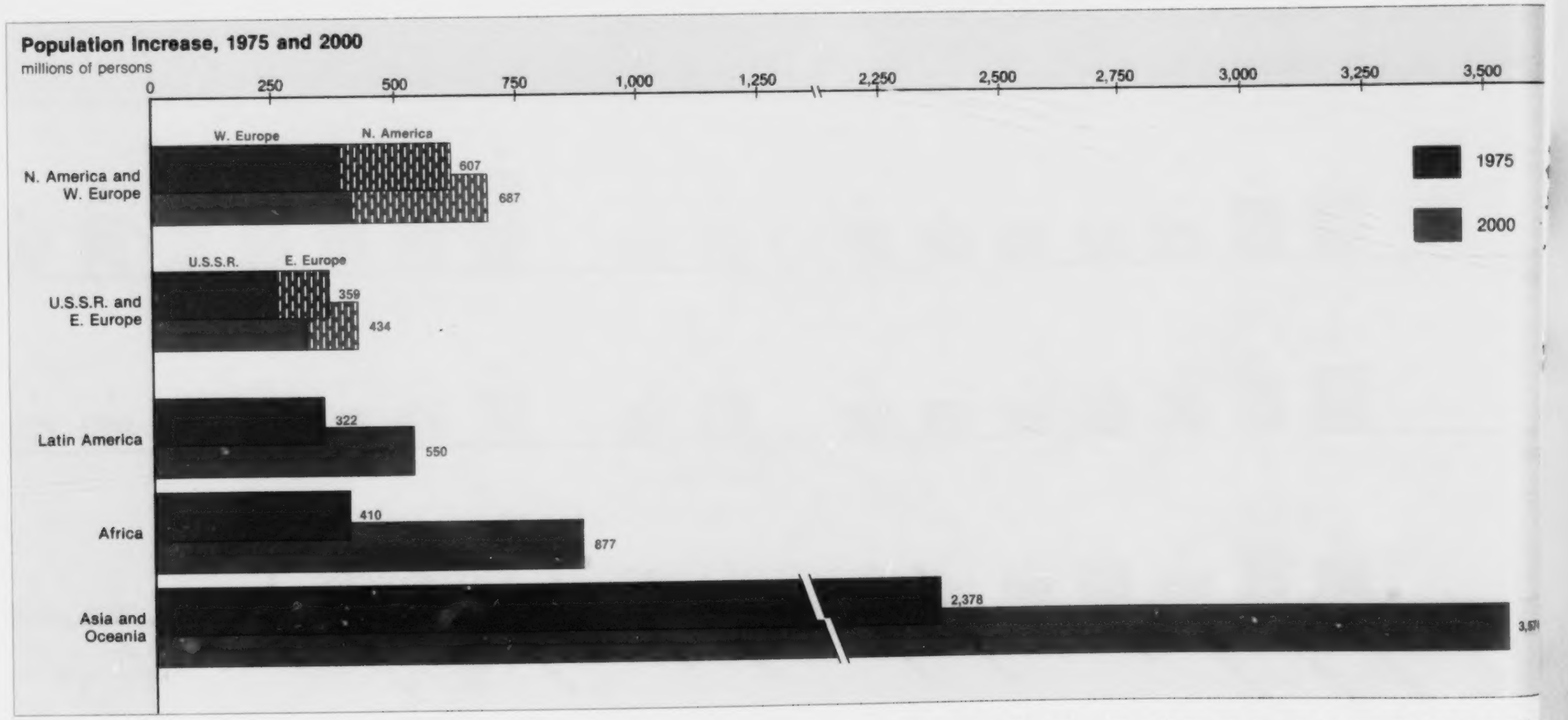
Source: UN, *The World Population Situation in 1983*, 1984

Population Increase

World population in 1980 was estimated at 4.5 billion, some 380 million more than in 1975. The figure projected for the year 2000 is more than 6 billion. Until about 1930, population grew fastest in European-settled countries where economic growth and easy emigration averted the dangers of overpopulation. Today, there is little or no growth in developed countries and in some the population is declining.

Growth has been more rapid in developing countries where economic resources may not expand with equal rapidity. To bring population growth under control, many developing countries have adopted family planning. China, India, Sri Lanka, Colombia, and other countries have succeeded in reducing the birth rate.





Population Increase, 1975 and 2000

Source: Figures from UN, IESA/P/WP. 82, December 9, 1983, "World Population Tr
and Policies: 1983 Monitoring Report: UN Estimates as Assessed in 1982."

World Immigration, 1950-79

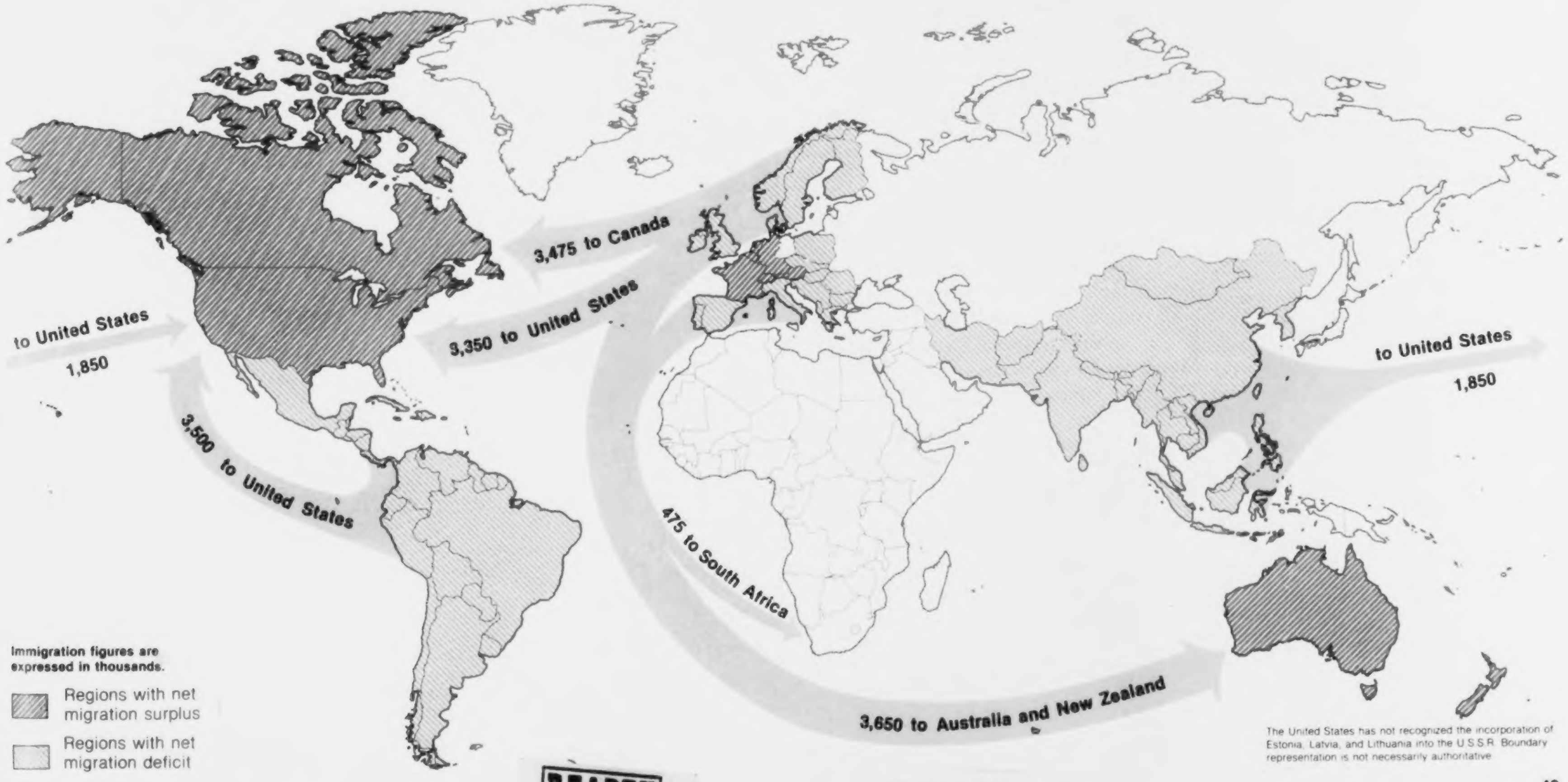
Permanent migration from one country to another, or immigration, has important economic consequences. While the country of origin may thus reduce a surplus population (or lose many of its most enterprising citizens), the country of immigration acquires manpower and economic skills.

Many of the immigrants since World War II are refugees from communist rule. Two million refugees are included in the 11 million Europeans who have found new homes overseas since 1945. The 8.7 million immigrants to the United States between 1950 and 1979 include 2 million refugees from Asia and Latin America as well as Europe.

Long the leading country of immigration, the United States had a rising flow even in the 1970s when arrivals in other major destinations (Australia, Canada, and New Zealand) declined. The United States was first to experience heavy immigration from the Third World. In the 1960s Latin America replaced Europe as the leading source of U.S. immigration, with Asia taking second place in the 1970s.

Illegal migration, for permanent or temporary residence, occurs wherever immigration is subject to restriction and borders are relatively open. Figures for illegal migrants are, of necessity, estimates. Countries that appear to have the largest numbers of illegal migrants are the United States, West Germany, France, and Italy.

Source: Based in part on UN, IESA/P/WP. 82, December 9, 1983, "World Population Trends and Policies: 1983 Monitoring Report, Part I," and national statistical publications.



Immigration figures are expressed in thousands.

▨ Regions with net migration surplus

░ Regions with net migration deficit

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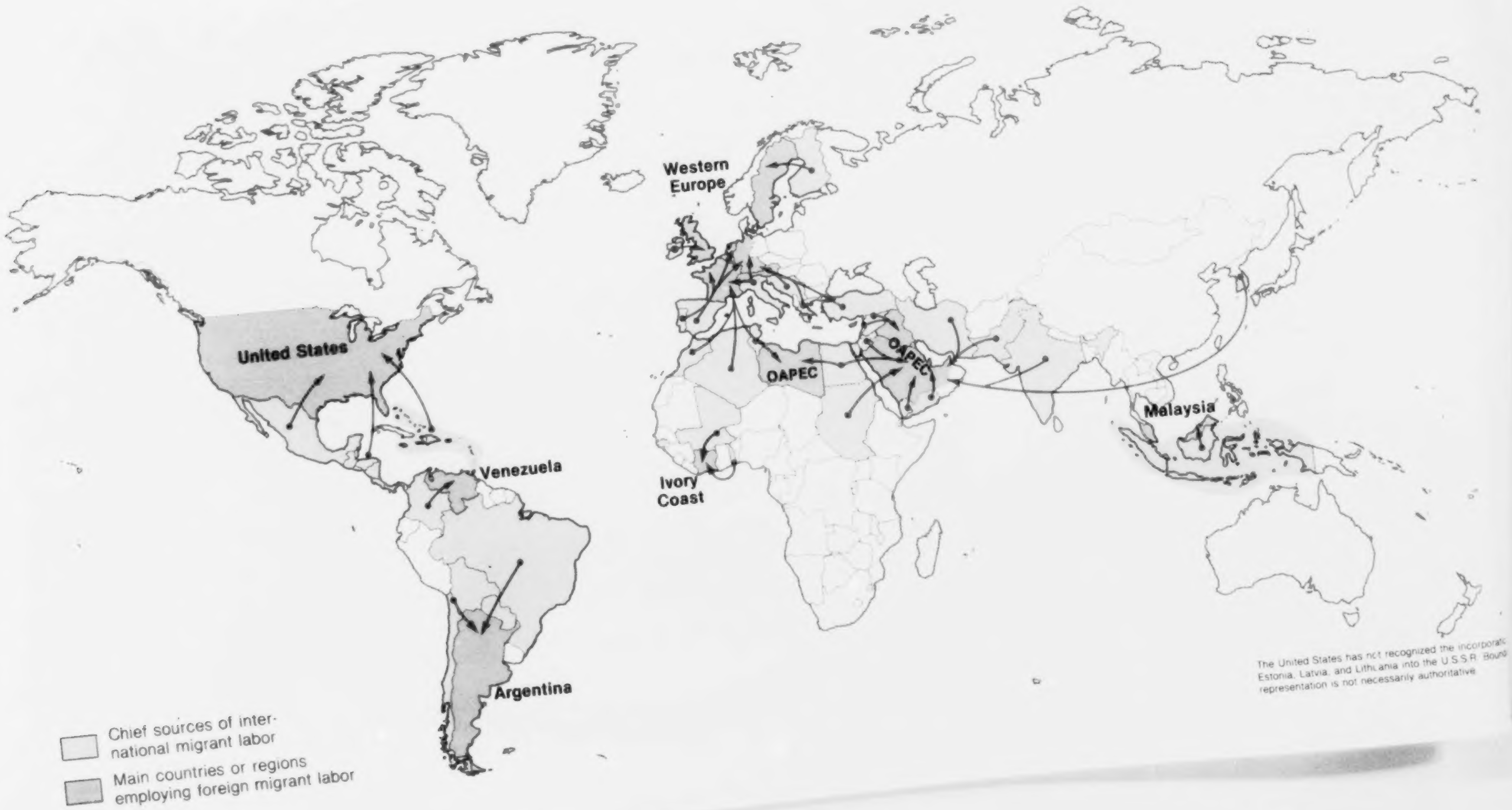
READEX FICHE

pages tightly bound

International Labor Migration

Temporary migration for work purposes is as vital to the world economy as permanent migration. Workers from less developed countries have helped industrial economies meet their needs for unskilled labor while easing the problem of unemployment or underemployment at home. Some countries derive a large share of their foreign exchange from money sent home by laborers working abroad. In 1982 there were nearly 5 million foreign laborers in European countries belonging to the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (excluding the United Kingdom). Foreigners constituted about 9% of the work force in France and the Federal Republic of Germany and 23% in Switzerland. In member countries of the Organization of Arab Petroleum Exporting Countries (OAPEC), foreign workers include many technicians and skilled workers as well as general laborers.


Western Europe
United States
OAPEC
OAPEC
Malaysia
Venezuela
Ivory Coast
Argentina
☐ Chief sources of international migrant labor
▨ Main countries or regions employing foreign migrant labor

The United States has not recognized the incorporatio Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania into the U.S.S.R. Bound representation is not necessarily authoritative

Trade and Investment

The following maps and charts depict the U.S. role in world trade and investment. The current U.S. position is compared with that of a previous period or year. For investment the comparative date is 1960. By this time Japan and Western Europe had rebuilt their war-damaged economies, and many developing countries were about to enter a period of sustained economic growth. Also, in 1960 the United States, Canada, and countries of Western Europe (later joined by Japan, Australia, and New Zealand) created the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) to achieve closer consultation on economic issues.

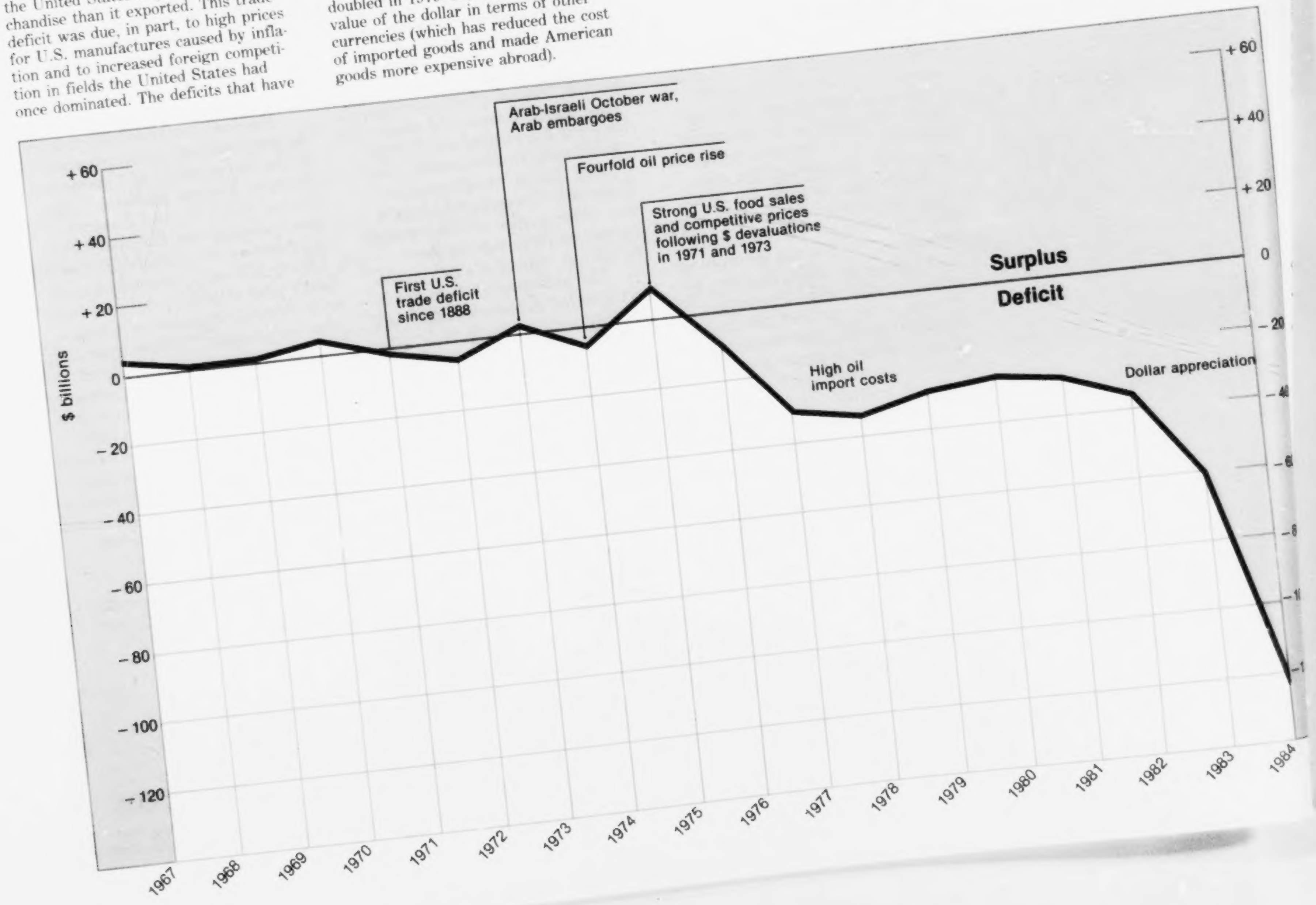
For trade the comparative date in most cases is 1967. This corresponds to the end of the Kennedy Round—the sixth postwar round of multilateral trade negotiations held under the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade. In this round, the United States, the European Economic Community, Japan, and other major trading powers agreed to deep cuts in their tariffs on manufactured goods.

The presentations on trade are limited to merchandise, excluding services such as banking, insurance, and shipping. The maps on investment deal chiefly with private direct investment, which refers to the purchase of a substantial interest in real estate or a business, often implying managerial control. Although developing countries are divided on the issue of foreign investment, OECD countries generally permit foreigners to invest in most fields as freely as their own citizens.

This section generally follows the geographical divisions used by the Department of Commerce. Western Europe includes Yugoslavia; U.S.S.R. and Eastern Europe comprise European full members of the Soviet-bloc Council for Mutual Economic Assistance plus Albania; Asia includes the People's Republic of China but not Japan (treated separately as the region's only developed market economy); Africa excludes South Africa (the only developed market economy on that continent). Oceania, however, includes Australia and New Zealand as well as the very small developing economies of the region. To avoid distortions in trade data concerning developing market economies, members of the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) are often treated as a unit.

U.S. Merchandise Trade Balance, 1967–84

In 1971, for the first time since 1888, the United States imported more merchandise than it exported. This trade deficit was due, in part, to high prices for U.S. manufactures caused by inflation and to increased foreign competition in fields the United States had once dominated. The deficits that have occurred since 1971 are due mostly to sharp increases in the price of imported oil, which quadrupled in 1974 and doubled in 1979–80, and to the rising value of the dollar in terms of other currencies (which has reduced the cost of imported goods and made American goods more expensive abroad).



World Merchandise Trade, 1960 and 1983

World trade is dominated by the market economies. Industrial nations in the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development account for about 68% of world export trade, while the Soviet Union and the East European countries account for about 4%.

The United States has long been the world's leading merchandise exporter. West Germany replaced the United Kingdom as the second largest exporter in 1961, and Japan in the past quarter century has increased its share of world export trade more than any other industrial country. The United States, with its large interior market, is less dependent on exports than other industrial nations. As a percentage of production, U.S. export trade rose from 14.3% in 1970 to 22.5% in 1983, while West Germany's rose from 37.2% to 61.3% between those years.

Asian developing economies have acquired a larger share of world export trade chiefly because of the continuing demand for Middle Eastern oil and successful export promotion by Hong Kong, South Korea, Malaysia, Singapore, Taiwan, and Thailand.

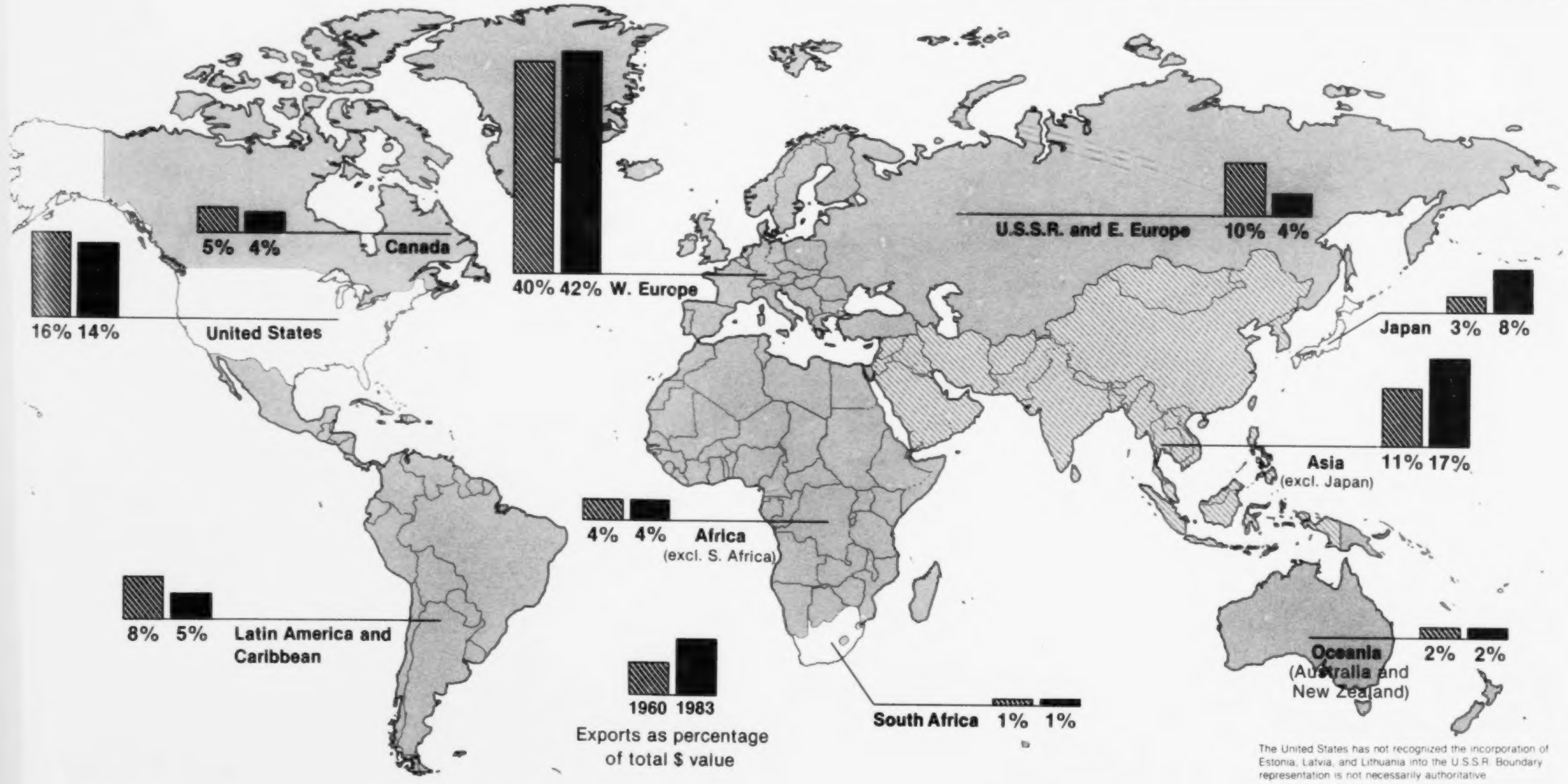
Leading Trading Nations, 1983
$ billions

TOTAL WORLD EXPORTS	**1,671**	**TOTAL WORLD IMPORTS**	**1,740**
United States	201	United States	270
West Germany	169	West Germany	153
Japan	147	Japan	127
France	95	France	105
United Kingdom	92	United Kingdom	100
Canada	77	Italy	80
Italy	73	Canada	65
Netherlands	65	Netherlands	63
Saudi Arabia	52	Belgium	55
Belgium	52	Saudi Arabia	39

Major International Trade Items
exports in $ billions,
average for 1980–82

Crude petroleum	282
Petroleum products	78
Cars	60
Motor vehicle parts	33
Natural gas	27
Aircraft	27
Trucks	24
Iron, steel universal plates, sheets	19
Telecommunications equipment	19
Iron, steel tubes and pipes	18
Wheat	16

Source: UN, *1982 Yearbook of International Trade Statistics*, 1984.


5% 4%
Canada
16% 14%
United States
40% 42% W. Europe
U.S.S.R. and E. Europe
10% 4%
Japan 3% 8%
Asia
(excl. Japan)
11% 17%
4% 4% Africa
(excl. S. Africa)
8% 5% Latin America and Caribbean
1960 1983
Exports as percentage of total $ value
South Africa 1% 1%
Oceania
(Australia and New Zealand)
2% 2%

The United States has not recognized the incorporation of Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania into the U.S.S.R. Boundary representation is not necessarily authoritative.

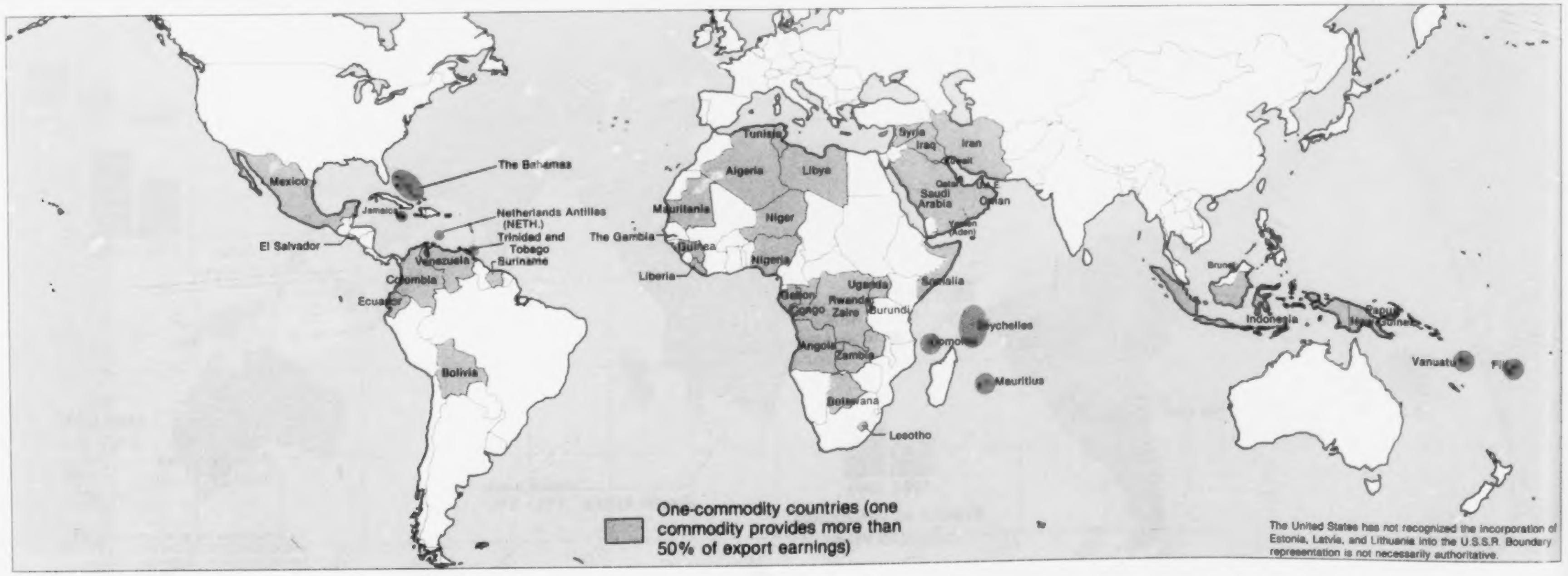
One-Commodity Countries

Many developing countries are dependent for foreign exchange on the export of one or a few primary commodities (unprocessed or semiprocessed agricultural or mineral products). Primary commodities are subject to severe price fluctuations as well as competition from synthetic products (corn sweeteners for sugar) or substitutes (other beverages for coffee). As a result, developing countries with one or a few export commodities often cannot earn enough foreign exchange to import goods necessary for their development. Efforts to stabilize prices and markets through international commodity agreements, sometimes including both consumer and producer nations, have had little success.

Source: Data for table from IMF, *International Financial Statistics*, February 1985

One-Commodity Countries (based on 1980–83 export average, market economies only)

Latin America and Caribbean	The Bahamas	*Petroleum products*
	Bolivia	*Natural gas (1983)*
	Colombia	*Coffee*
	Ecuador	*Crude petroleum*
	El Salvador	*Coffee*
	Jamaica	*Alumina*
	Mexico	*Crude petroleum*
	Netherlands Antilles	*Petroleum products*
	Suriname	*Alumina*
	Trinidad and Tobago	*Petroleum and products*
	Venezuela	*Crude petroleum*
Middle East Asia	Iran	*Crude petroleum*
	Iraq	*Crude petroleum*
	Kuwait	*Crude petroleum*
	Oman	*Crude petroleum*
	Qatar	*Crude petroleum*
	Saudi Arabia	*Crude petroleum*
	Syria	*Crude petroleum*
	United Arab Emirates	*Crude petroleum*
	Yemen (Aden)	*Petroleum products*
Africa	Algeria	*Crude petroleum*
	Angola	*Crude petroleum*
	Botswana	*Diamonds*
	Burundi	*Coffee*
	Comoros	*Cloves*
	Congo	*Crude petroleum*
	Gabon	*Crude petroleum*
	The Gambia	*Groundnut products*
	Guinea	*Bauxite*
	Lesotho	*Diamonds*
	Liberia	*Iron ore*
	Libya	*Crude petroleum*
	Mauritania	*Iron ore*
	Mauritius	*Sugar*
	Niger	*Uranium*
	Nigeria	*Crude petroleum*
	Rwanda	*Coffee*
	Seychelles	*Copra*
	Somalia	*Live animals*
	Uganda	*Coffee*
	Zaire	*Copper*
	Zambia	*Copper*
Asia/Pacific	Brunei	*Petroleum and products*
	Fiji	*Sugar*
	Indonesia	*Crude petroleum*
	Papua New Guinea	*Copper concentrate*
	Vanuatu	*Copra*


The Bahamas
Mexico
Jamaica
Netherlands Antilles (NETH.)
Trinidad and Tobago
Suriname
El Salvador
Venezuela
Colombia
Ecuador
Bolivia
Tunisia
Algeria
Libya
Mauritania
Niger
The Gambia
Guinea
Liberia
Nigeria
Gabon
Congo
Uganda
Rwanda
Zaire
Burundi
Somalia
Angola
Zambia
Botswana
Lesotho
Comoros
Seychelles
Mauritius
Syria
Iraq
Iran
Kuwait
Qatar
UAE
Saudi Arabia
Oman
Yemen (Aden)
Brunei
Indonesia
Papua New Guinea
Vanuatu
Fiji
One-commodity countries (one commodity provides more than 50% of export earnings)

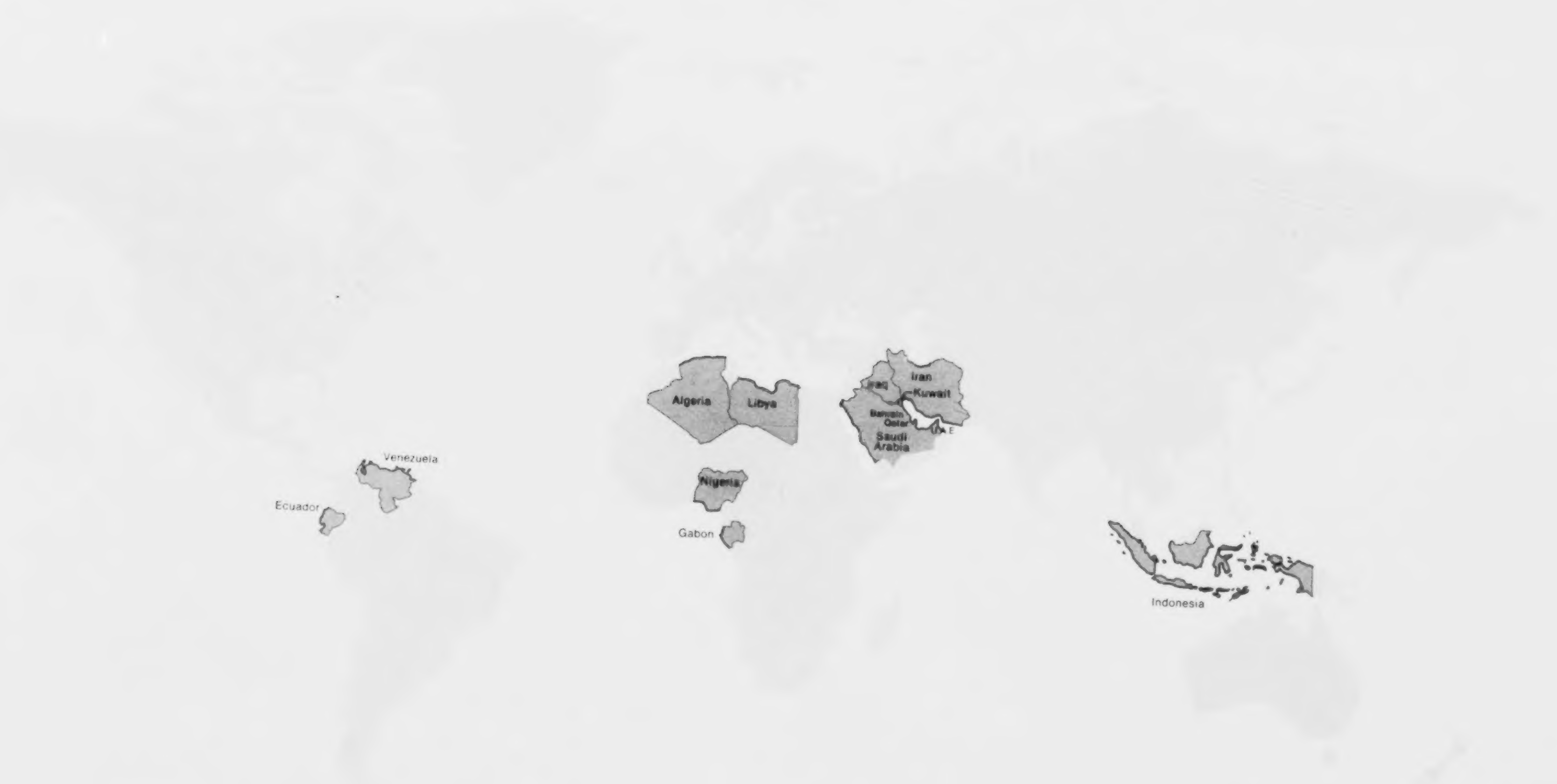
The United States has not recognized the incorporation of Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania into the U.S.S.R. Boundary representation is not necessarily authoritative.

Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC)

The best known association of commodity producers concerns the world's most heavily traded commodity—oil. The Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) was founded by Third World oil producers in 1960 to promote common policies on production and prices. OPEC's price increases in the 1970s, when OPEC members were producing close to or more than 50% of the world's crude oil, brought most OPEC members substantial trade surpluses. But in the 1980s, events beyond OPEC's control—international recession, energy conservation, increased production by other countries—created a world oil surplus and reduced OPEC revenues.

World's Leading Oil Producers
% of world production

	1973	1977	1984
OPEC	54	51	33
U.S.S.R.	15	18	22
United States	16	13	16
Saudi Arabia	13	15	9
Iran	10	9	5
Mexico	1	2	5
Venezuela	6	9	5


Venezuela
Ecuador
Algeria
Libya
Nigeria
Gabon
Iraq
Iran
Kuwait
Bahrain
Qatar
U.A.E.
Saudi Arabia
Indonesia

Boundary representation is not necessarily authoritative.

U.S. Merchandise Exports, 1967 and 1984

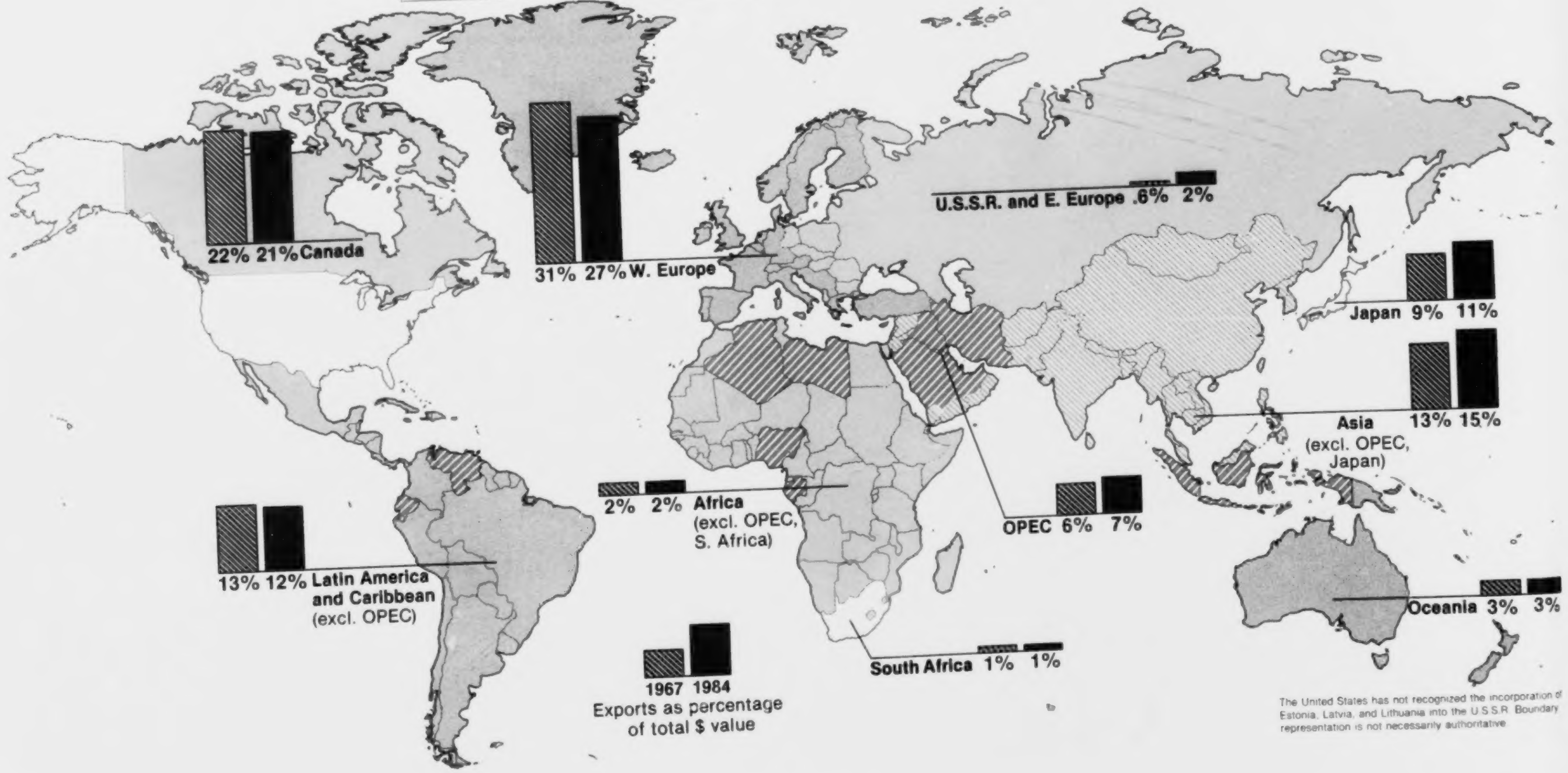
U.S. export trade has almost tripled since 1967 but has not grown as rapidly as that of other industrial countries. Canada has long been the largest national importer of U.S. goods. Western Europe remains the largest regional market, though in 1981, for the first time in more than two decades, its share of U.S. exports was less than 30%. Developing countries accounted for about 31% of U.S. exports in 1967 and 36% in 1984.

Source: Figures based on U.S. Department of Commerce, *Highlights of U.S. Export and Import Trade*, FT 990 (December 1968, December 1984).

U.S. Merchandise Exports, 1984

$ billions (rounded)

TOTAL	**218**
Western Europe	55
Canada	47
Asia (excl. Japan and OPEC)	32
Latin America and Caribbean (excl. OPEC)	26
Japan	24
OPEC	14
Oceania	6
Africa (excl. OPEC and South Africa)	5
U.S.S.R. and Eastern Europe	4
South Africa	2
Other	3


22% 21% Canada
31% 27% W. Europe
U.S.S.R. and E. Europe .6% 2%
Japan 9% 11%
Asia 13% 15%
(excl. OPEC, Japan)
OPEC 6% 7%
2% 2% Africa (excl. OPEC, S. Africa)
13% 12% Latin America and Caribbean (excl. OPEC)
South Africa 1% 1%
Oceania 3% 3%
1967 1984
Exports as percentage of total $ value

The United States has not recognized the incorporation of Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania into the U.S.S.R. Boundary representation is not necessarily authoritative.

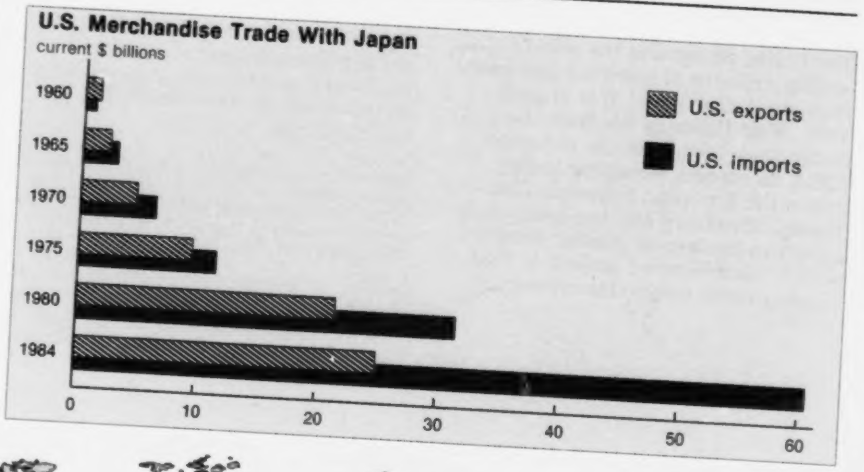
U.S. Merchandise Imports, 1967 and 1984

U.S. merchandise imports include manufactures that compete with American goods as well as agricultural items that generally complement American farm production. Since World War II, coffee was the leading import by value from 1945 through 1956 (and again in 1964); passenger cars from 1966 through 1973; and crude oil from 1957 through 1963, in 1965, and from 1974 to the present.

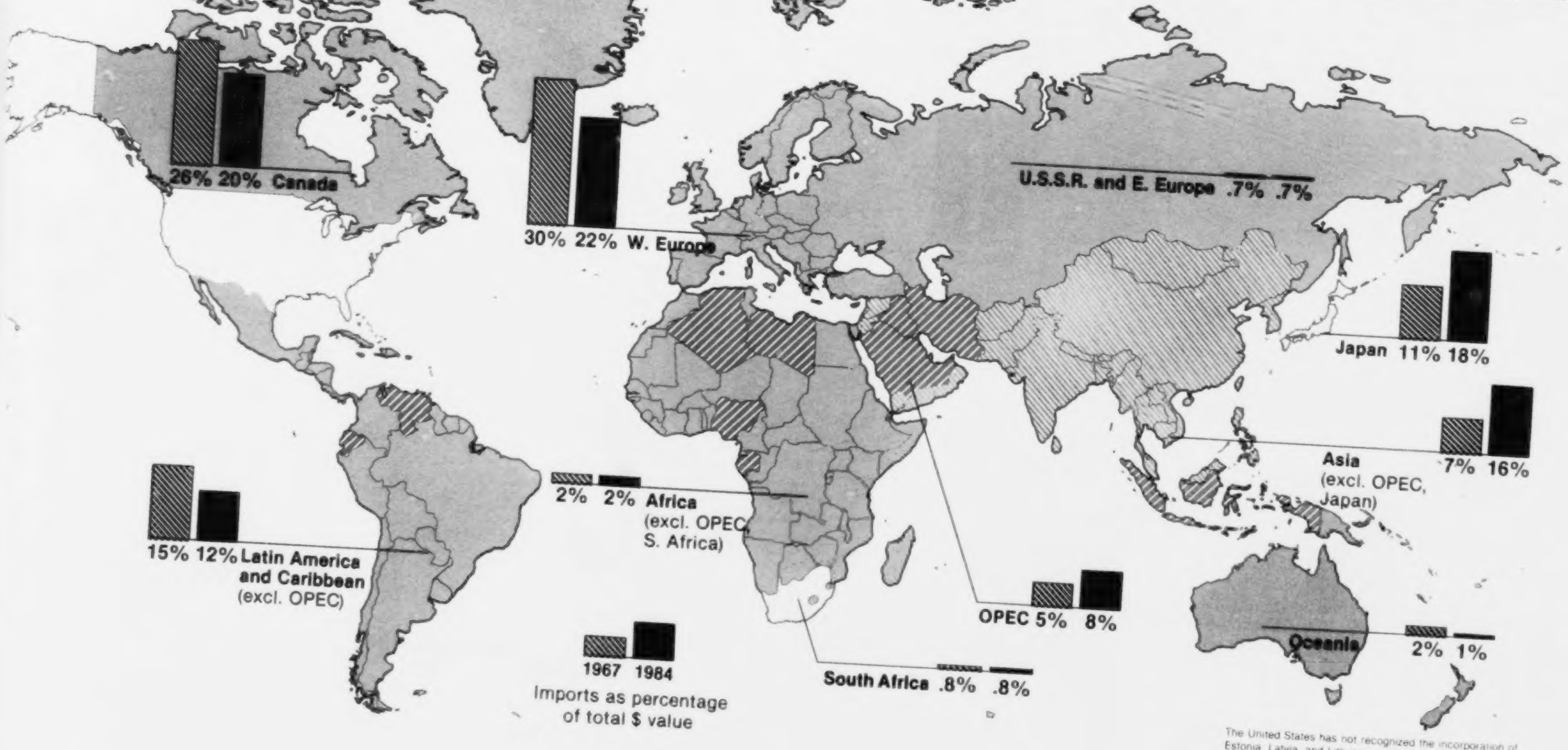
ource: Department of Commerce, *Statistical stract of the United States*, appropriate years, d *Highlights of U.S. Export and Import Trade*, T 990 (December 1968, December 1984).

U.S. Merchandise Imports, 1984
$ billions (rounded)

TOTAL	**341**
Western Europe	75
Canada	67
Japan	60
Asia (excl. Japan and OPEC)	55
Latin America and Caribbean (excl. OPEC)	41
OPEC	28
Africa (excl. OPEC and South Africa)	5
Oceania	4
South Africa	3
U.S.S.R. and Eastern Europe	2
Other	1



U.S. Merchandise Trade With Japan
current $ billions



26% 20% Canada
30% 22% W. Europe
U.S.S.R. and E. Europe .7% .7%
Japan 11% 18%
Asia (excl. OPEC, Japan) 7% 16%
15% 12% Latin America and Caribbean (excl. OPEC)
2% 2% Africa (excl. OPEC, S. Africa)
OPEC 5% 8%
Oceania 2% 1%
South Africa .8% .8%
1967 1984

Imports as percentage of total $ value

The United States has not recognized the incorporation of Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania into the U.S.S.R. Boundary representation is not necessarily authoritative

U.S. Manufactured Exports, 1967 and 1984

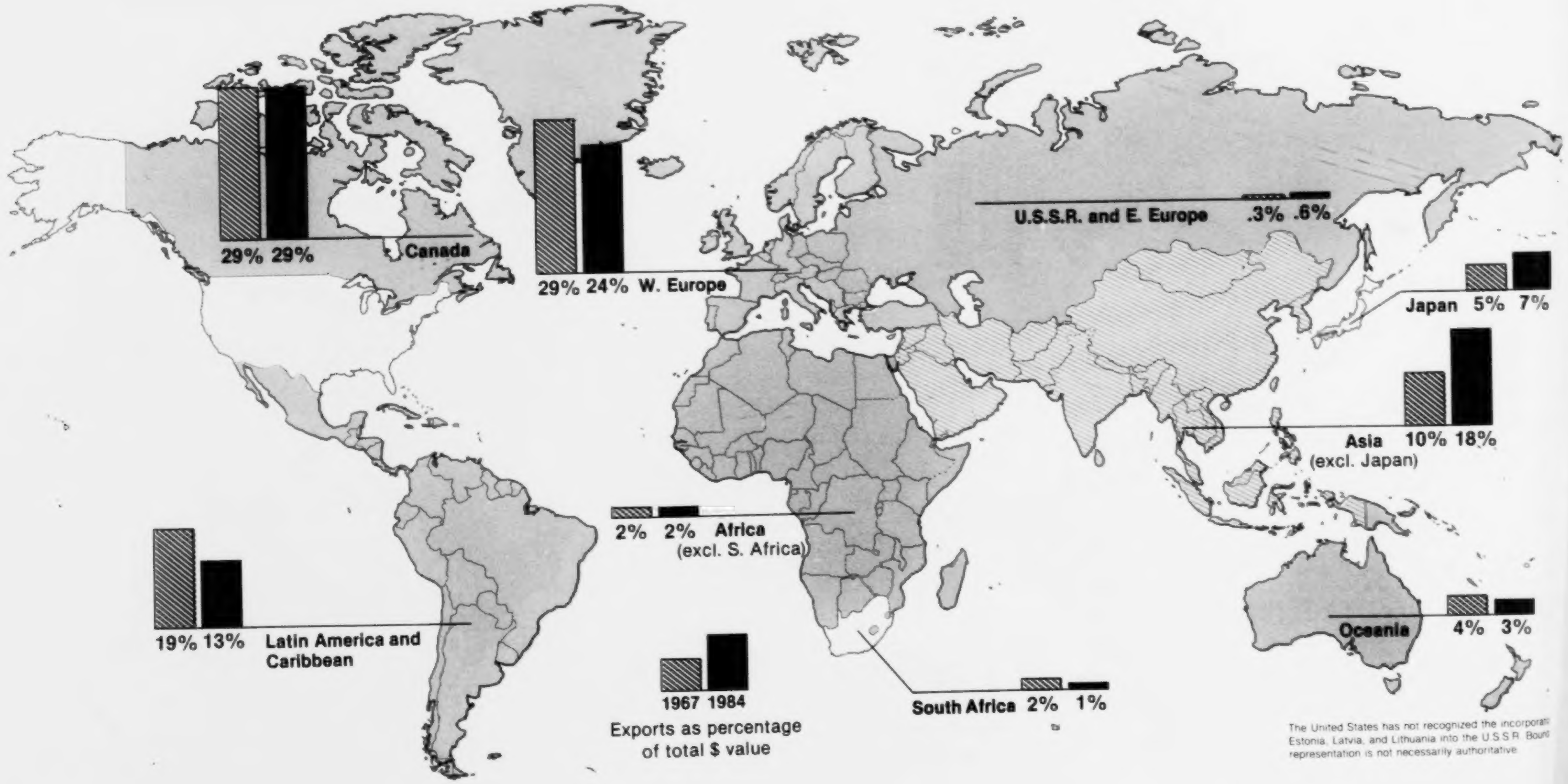
The United States was the world's leading exporter of manufactured goods from the end of World War II until 1970. West Germany has been the leader since then (with the exception of 1981), its exports remaining largely within the European Economic Community. Machinery and transport equipment was the largest general category of U.S. manufactured exports in 1984. Leading items within this category, in order of rank, were motor vehicles and parts, office machinery, electrical machinery, and aircraft. Asian developing countries are the market that has expanded most since 1967.

Source: Figures based on U.S. Department of Commerce, *Highlights of U.S. Export and Import Trade*, FT 990 (December 1968, December 1984); U.S. Exports, Commodity by Country, FT 410 (December 1967, December 1984).

U.S. Manufactured Exports, 1984

$ billions (rounded)

TOTAL	**173**
Canada	49
Western Europe	42
Asia (excl. Japan)	31
Latin America and Caribbean	22
Japan	12
Oceania	6
Africa (excl. South Africa)	4
South Africa	2
U.S.S.R. and Eastern Europe	1
Other	2



29% 29% Canada
29% 24% W. Europe
U.S.S.R. and E. Europe .3% .6%
Japan 5% 7%
Asia (excl. Japan) 10% 18%
2% 2% Africa (excl. S. Africa)
19% 13% Latin America and Caribbean
1967 1984
South Africa 2% 1%
Oceania 4% 3%

Exports as percentage of total $ value

The United States has not recognized the incorpora Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania into the U.S.S.R. Boun representation is not necessarily authoritative.

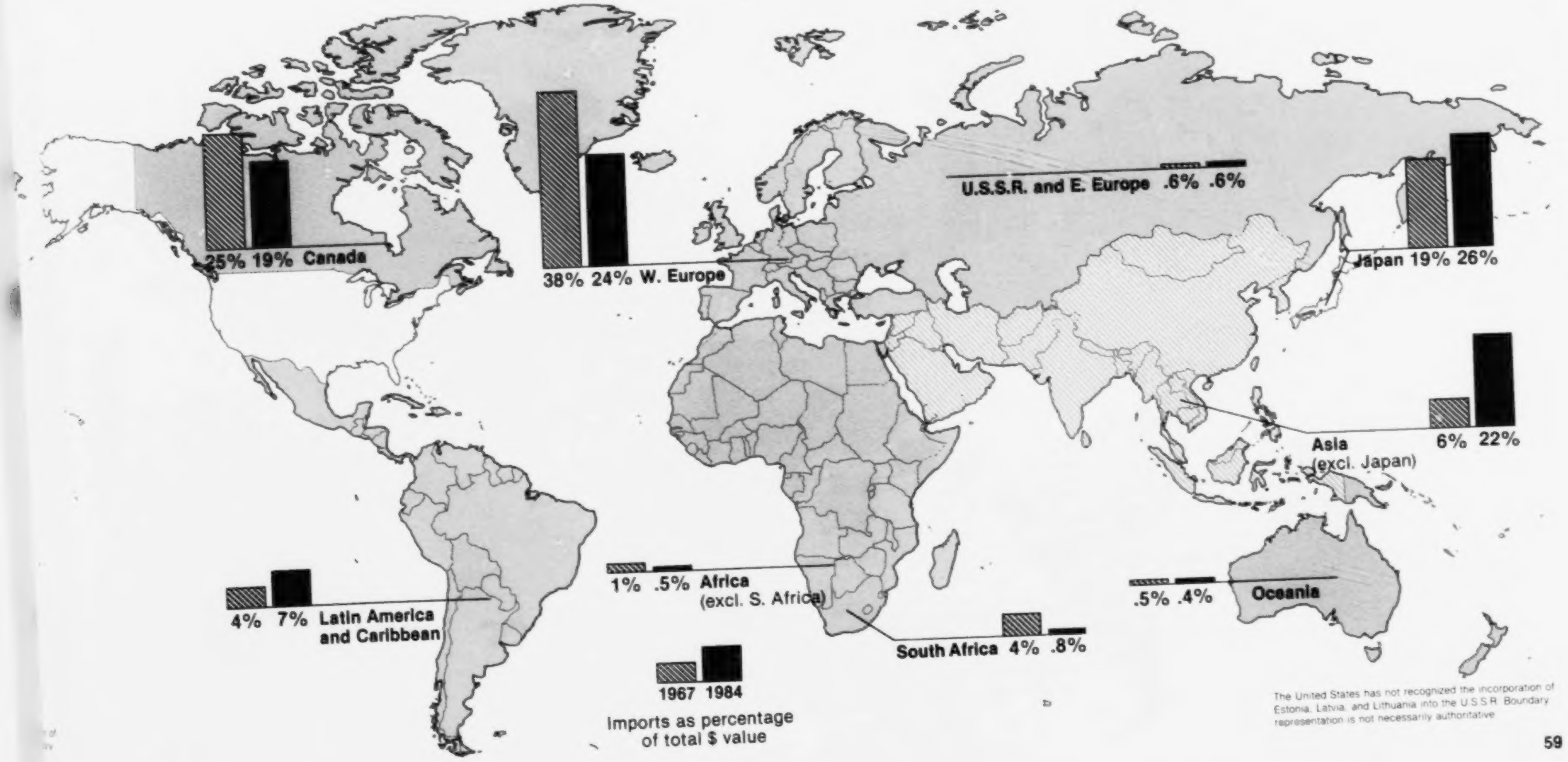
U.S. Manufactured Imports, 1967 and 1984

Japan surpassed Western Europe as the principal source of U.S. manufactured imports in 1981. Each year since 1977 the United States has imported more passenger cars—its chief manufactured import—from Japan than from either Western Europe or Canada. In 1981 Americans bought 1.9 million Japanese-made cars (21% of all new car sales). From April 1981 to April 1984, Japanese car manufacturers voluntarily limited their exports to the United States to 1.68 million cars per year; from April 1984 to April 1985, to 1.85 million. Manufactured imports from Asian developing economies, which have grown by more than 300% since 1967, consist largely of light industrial items such as electrical machinery and clothing.

Source: Figures based on U.S. Department of Commerce, *Highlights of U.S. Export and Import Trade*, FT 990 (December 1968, December 1984); *U.S. General Imports*, FT 135 (December issues).

U.S. Manufactured Imports, 1984
$ billions (rounded)

TOTAL	**232**
Japan	59
Western Europe	57
Asia (excl. Japan)	50
Canada	45
Latin America and Caribbean	16
South Africa	2
U.S.S.R. and Eastern Europe	1
Africa (excl. South Africa)	1
Oceania	1


25% 19% Canada
38% 24% W. Europe
U.S.S.R. and E. Europe .6% .6%
Japan 19% 26%
Asia (excl. Japan) 6% 22%
4% 7% Latin America and Caribbean
1% .5% Africa (excl. S. Africa)
South Africa 4% .8%
.5% .4% Oceania
1967 1984
Imports as percentage of total $ value

The United States has not recognized the incorporation of Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania into the U.S.S.R. Boundary representation is not necessarily authoritative.

U.S. Agricultural Export Markets, 1967-71 and 1980-84

The United States is the world's leading agricultural exporter. Over 20% of the U.S. farm product is sold abroad every year. And in 1983 the United States accounted for 18% of world agricultural exports.

Japan has been the leading market for U.S. farm products for many years. Other major purchasers have been the Netherlands, Mexico, Canada, West Germany, United Kingdom, South Korea, and (since 1976) the U.S.S.R. Western Europe, though taking a smaller share than in the 1960s, is still the largest regional market for U.S. agricultural exports.

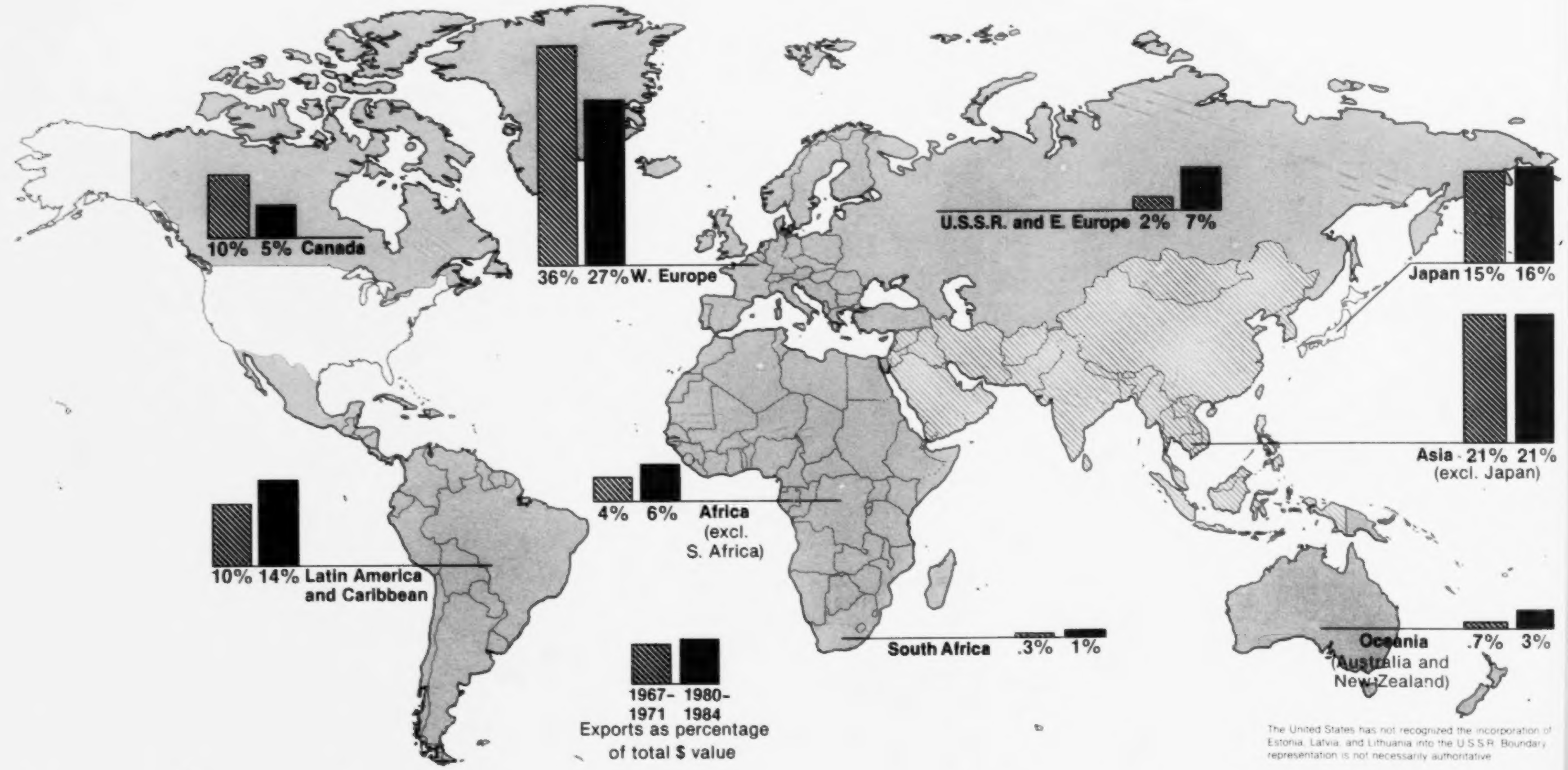
Source: Map figures based on Department of Commerce, *Highlights of U.S. Export and Import Trade*, FT 990 (December issues), and *U.S. Exports by World Area* FT 455 (annuals); tables on U.S. Department of Agriculture data.

U.S. Agricultural Exports, 1984
$ billions (rounded)

Total	**38**
Western Europe	9
Asia (excl. Japan)	8
Japan	7
Latin America and Caribbean	5
U.S.S.R. and Eastern Europe	4
Africa	3
Other	2

Leading U.S. Agricultural Export Items, 1984
by value ($ billions)

Feedgrains	8
Corn	7
Wheat	6
Soybeans	5
Cotton	2
Tobacco	2


10% 5% Canada
36% 27% W. Europe
U.S.S.R. and E. Europe 2% 7%
Japan 15% 16%
Asia 21% 21% (excl. Japan)
4% 6% Africa (excl. S. Africa)
10% 14% Latin America and Caribbean
South Africa .3% 1%
Oceania .7% 3% (Australia and New Zealand)
1967-1971
1980-1984
Exports as percentage of total $ value

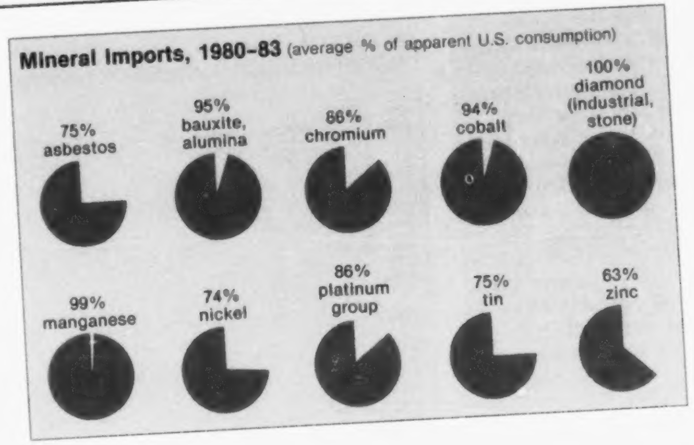
The United States has not recognized the incorporation of Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania into the U.S.S.R. Boundary representation is not necessarily authoritative.

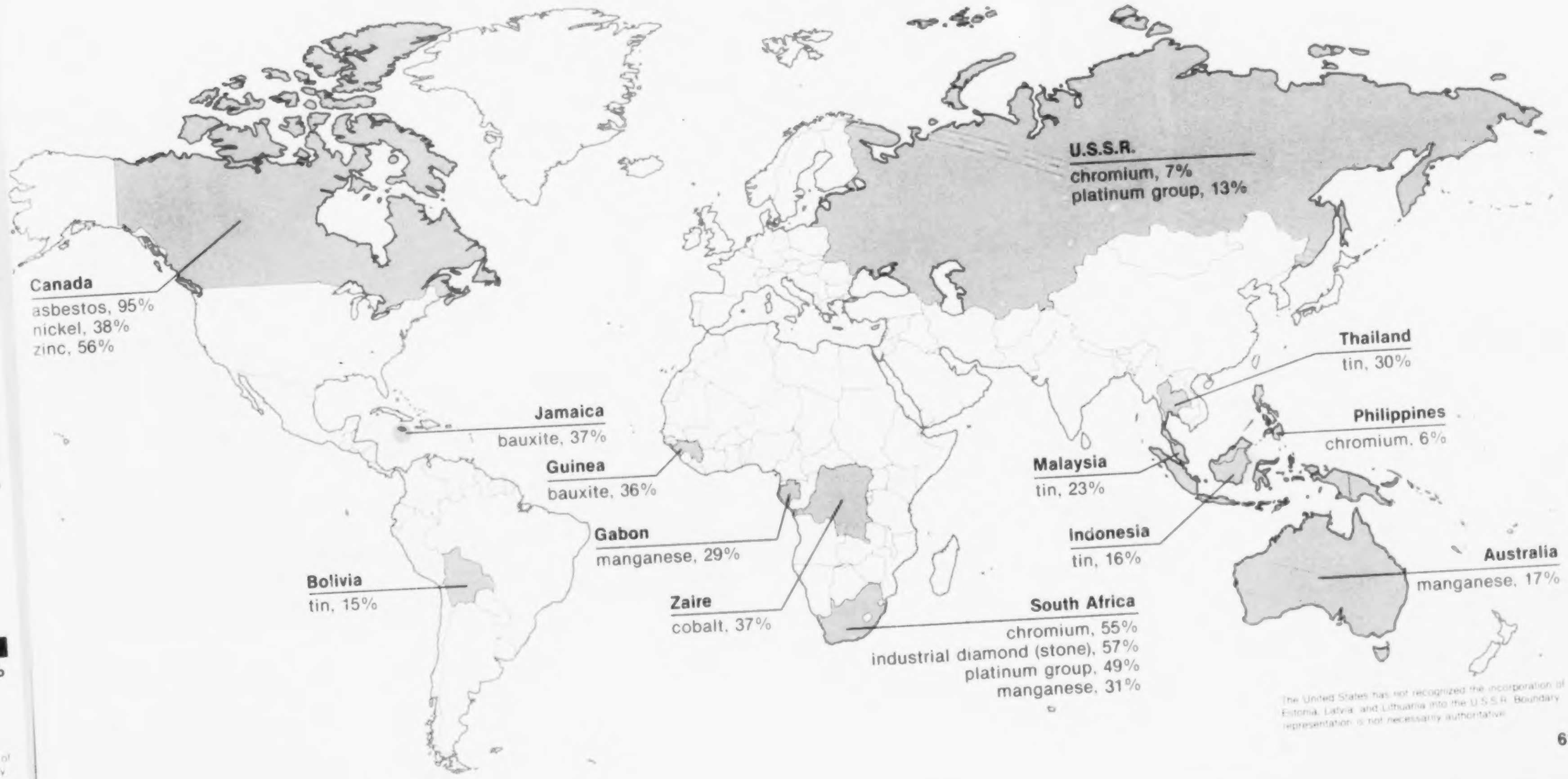
Sources of U.S. Nonfuel Mineral Imports, 1980-83

The United States produces most of the minerals used by American industry but depends on foreign suppliers to meet some or all of its needs for more than 20 of the 80 strategic and critical minerals included in the national defense stockpiles. Western Europe is more dependent on foreign mineral production than the United States; Japan's dependence is almost total. The U.S.S.R. is relatively self-sufficient in minerals.

The map shows the principal sources of 10 nonfuel minerals for which the United States relies chiefly on imports and gives the supplier's share of total U.S. imports of the listed minerals in 1980-83.

Mineral Imports, 1980-83 (average % of apparent U.S. consumption)




Canada
asbestos, 95%
nickel, 38%
zinc, 56%
U.S.S.R.
chromium, 7%
platinum group, 13%
Jamaica
bauxite, 37%
Guinea
bauxite, 36%
Gabon
manganese, 29%
Bolivia
tin, 15%
Zaire
cobalt, 37%
Thailand
tin, 30%
Philippines
chromium, 6%
Malaysia
tin, 23%
Indonesia
tin, 16%
Australia
manganese, 17%
South Africa
chromium, 55%
industrial diamond (stone), 57%
platinum group, 49%
manganese, 31%

The United States has not recognized the incorporation of Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania into the U.S.S.R. Boundary representation is not necessarily authoritative.

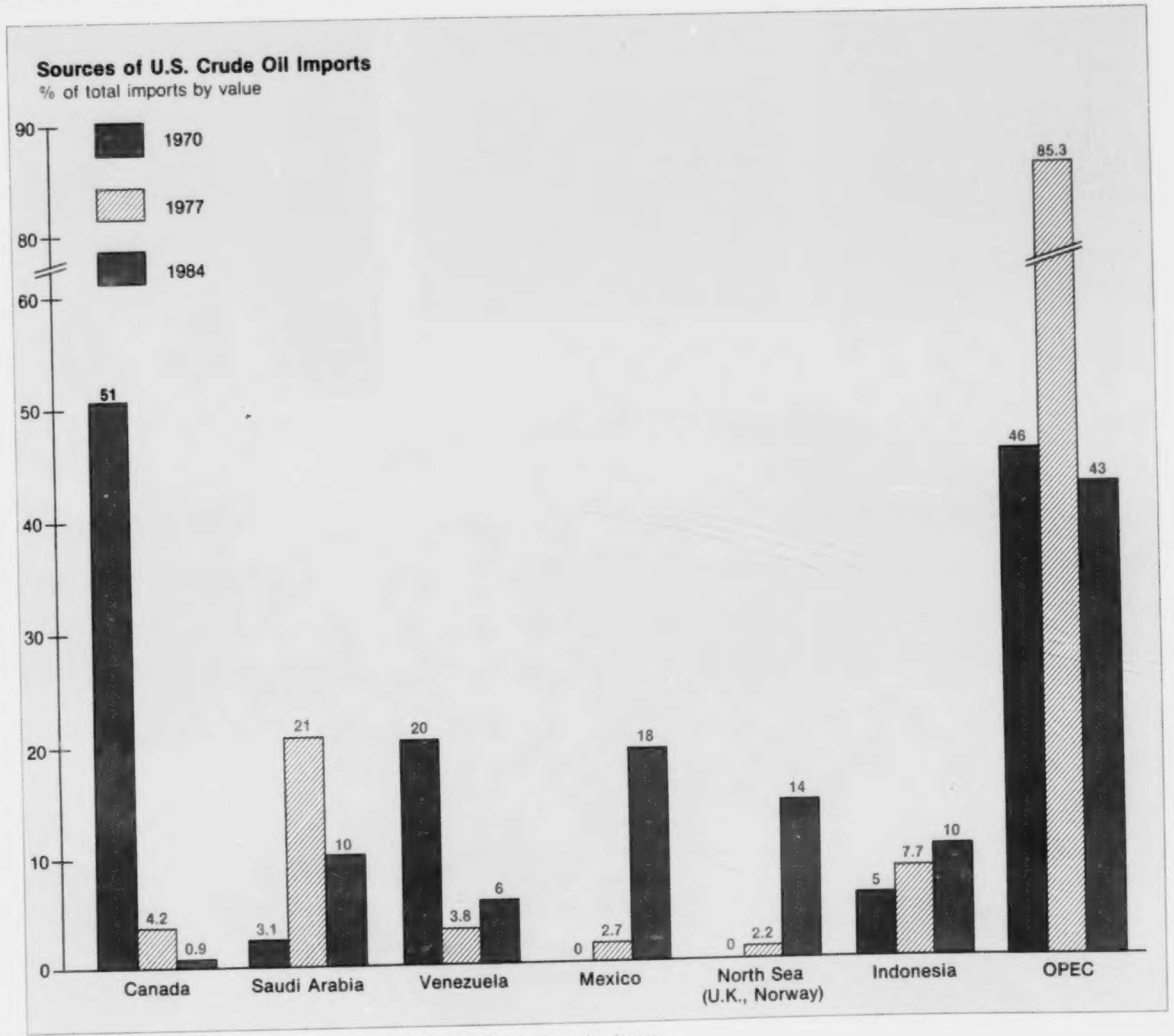
Sources of U.S. Crude Oil Imports, 1970, 1977, and 1984

The United States was the world's leading producer of crude oil until 1974 (when surpassed by the Soviet Union) but has been a net oil importer since 1949. Imports rose sharply in the 1970s—from 21% of U.S. consumption in 1970 to 45% in 1979. The decline to about 23% of U.S. consumption in 1984 was due to shrinking demand and a modest rise in U.S. production. The rapid increase in OPEC's share of U.S. oil imports in the 1970s was due partly to Canada's policy of reducing oil exports to the United States. OPEC's share decreased in the 1980s after new Mexican wells and the North Sea fields came on stream.

Value of U.S. Crude Oil Imports, 1984
$ billions

Total	**37.95**
Mexico	6.84
United Kingdom	4.14
Saudi Arabia	3.72
Indonesia	3.71
Canada	3.52
Nigeria	2.44
Venezuela	2.26
Norway	1.23
Trinidad and Tobago	1.05
Ecuador	0.98
Angola	0.96
Brazil	0.96
Algeria	0.91
Other	5.23

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, *U.S. General Imports*, FT 135, December issues.



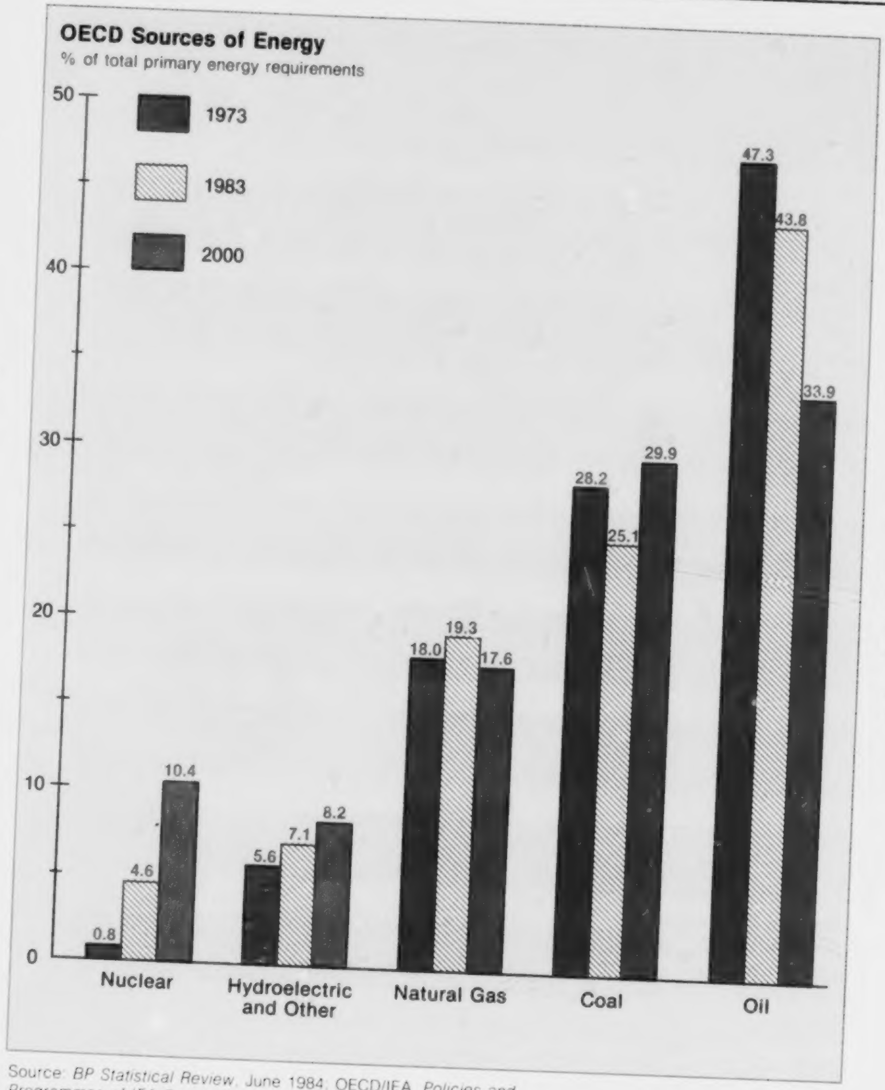
Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, *U.S. General Imports*, FT 135, December issues.

OECD Oil Imports, 1973-2000

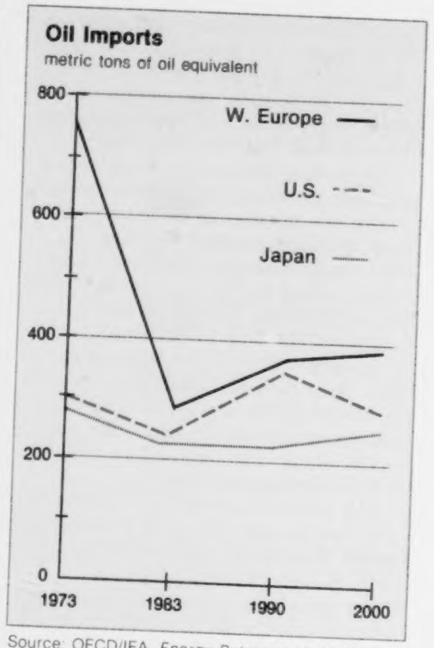
n 1974 the United States and other
nembers of the Organization for
Economic Cooperation and Develop-
nent established the International
Energy Agency (IEA) to provide for
mergency oil sharing and collective ef-
rts to develop other sources of
nergy. This was in response to the
973 Arab oil embargoes and the high
rices set by the Organization of
etroleum Exporting Countries
PEC).

The sharp drop in West European
imports since 1973 (shown on the
aph) is due to conservation and in-
eased use of other fuels as well as the
79-82 industrial slowdown and
elopment of the North Sea oilfields.
ports account for 75% of Western
rope's, and all of Japan's, oil
sumption.

Ultimately, the world must derive
t of its energy from other fuels. But
resent there is no substitute for oil.



Source: *BP Statistical Review*, June 1984; OECD/IEA, *Policies and Programmes of IEA Countries: 1984 Review*, 1985



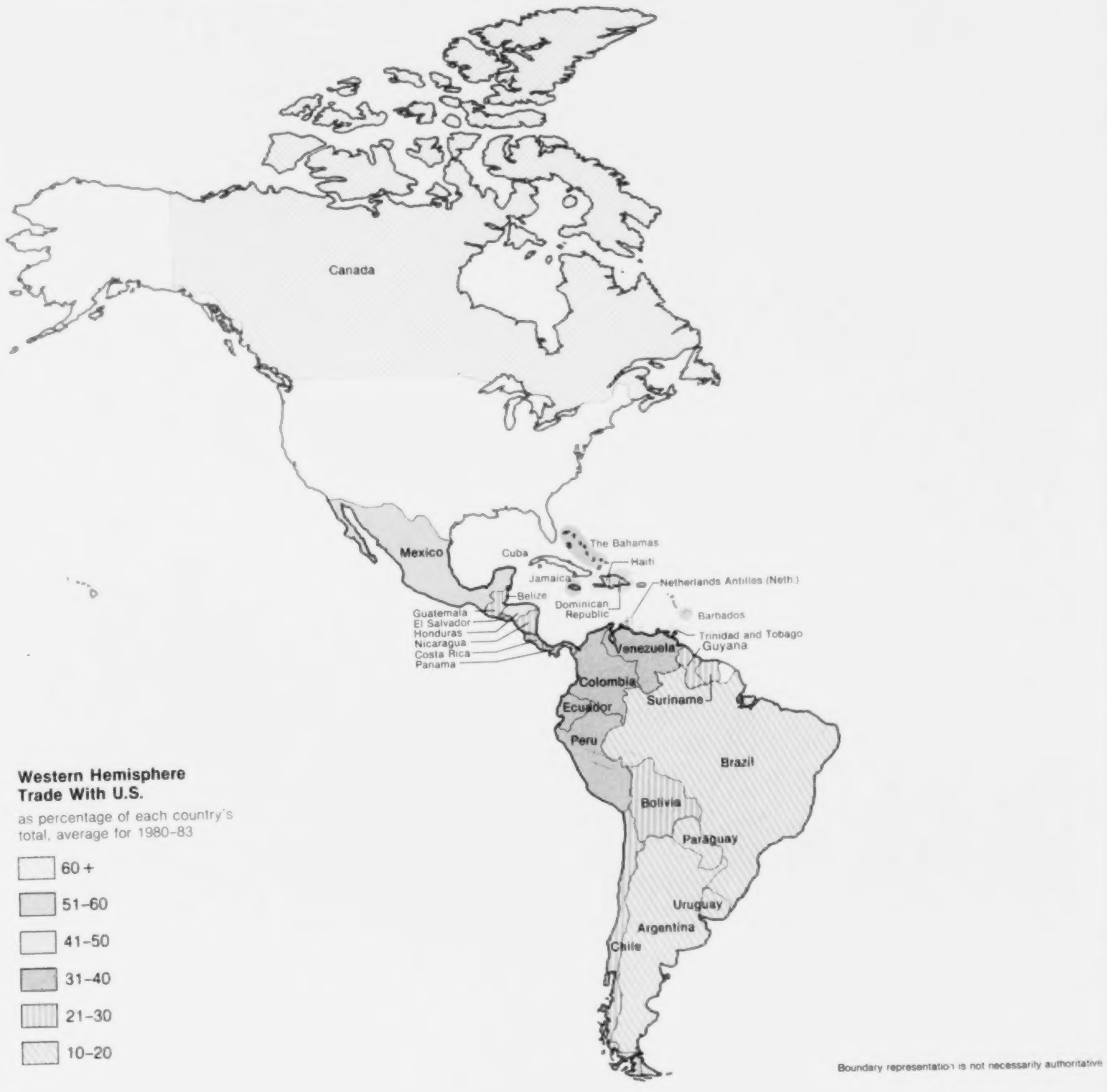
Source: OECD/IEA, *Energy Balances of OECD Countries: 1970-1982*, 1984; *Policies and Programmes of IEA Countries: 1984 Review*, 1985

Western Hemisphere Trade With the United States

In the 1980s the United States has been the destination of more than half the total merchandise exports of Canada and the Latin American and Caribbean nations, and these countries account for about 35% of total U.S. exports.

Excluding the smaller West Indian countries (some of which trade primarily with one another or the European Economic Community), the only Western Hemisphere countries whose major trading partner is not the United States are Cuba, Paraguay, and Uruguay. (The United States imposed an embargo on U.S.-Cuban trade in 1962. Over 85% of Cuba's trade is with the Soviet Union and other centrally planned economies. In May 1985 the United States also imposed an embargo on U.S.-Nicaraguan trade.)

All Latin American and Caribbean countries (except Cuba and Nicaragua) benefit from tariff preferences under the U.S. Generalized System of Preferences, instituted in 1976 as a means to enable Third World countries to compete in the American market. The Caribbean Basin Initiative, passed by Congress in 1983, eliminated U.S. customs duties on virtually all Caribbean Basin exports.


Canada
Mexico
Cuba
The Bahamas
Haiti
Jamaica
Belize
Netherlands Antilles (Neth.)
Dominican Republic
Barbados
Guatemala
El Salvador
Honduras
Nicaragua
Costa Rica
Panama
Trinidad and Tobago
Venezuela
Guyana
Colombia
Suriname
Ecuador
Peru
Brazil
Bolivia
Paraguay
Uruguay
Argentina
Chile
Western Hemisphere Trade With U.S.
as percentage of each country's total, average for 1980–83
60+
51–60
41–50
31–40
21–30
10–20
Boundary representation is not necessarily authoritative

International Lending

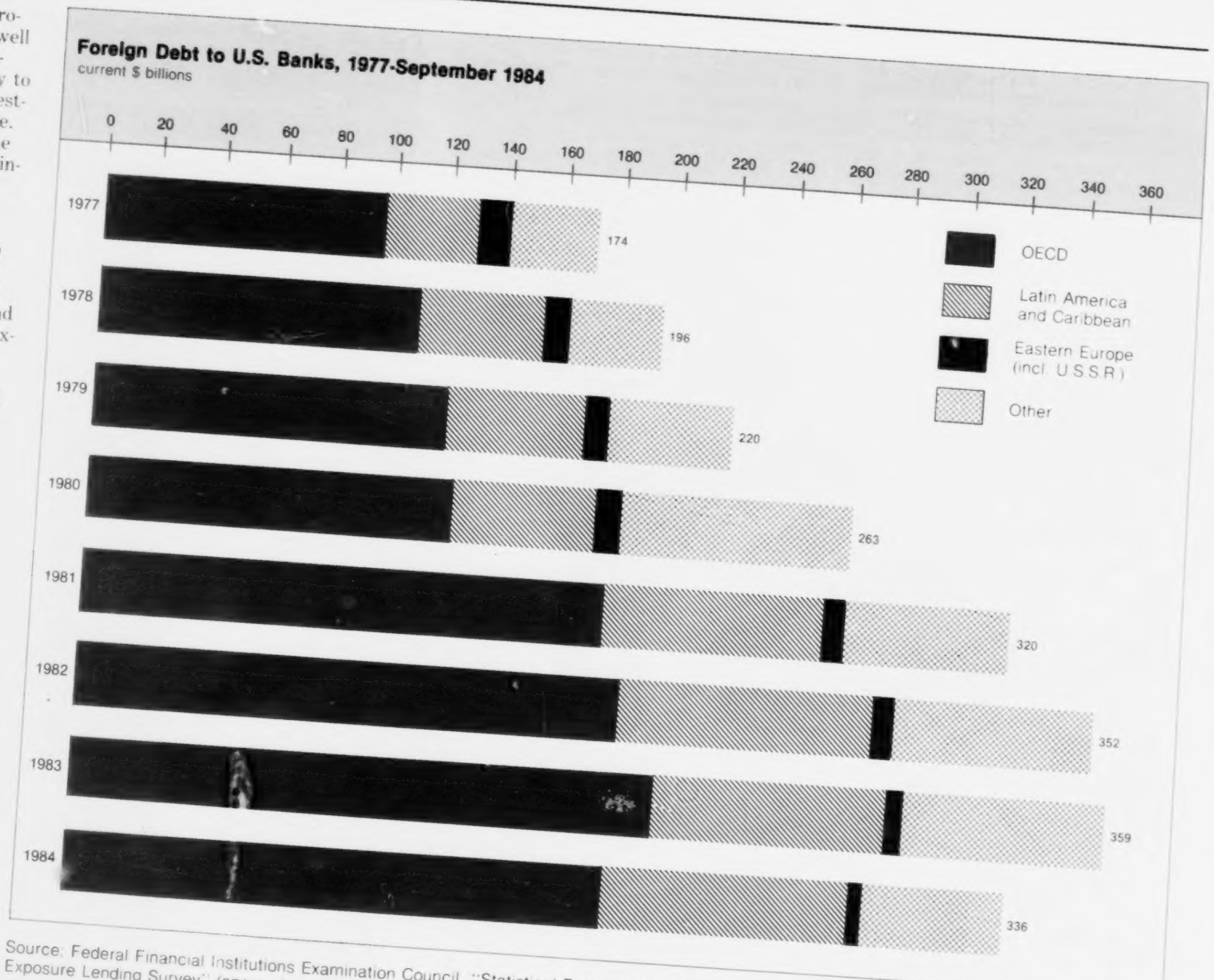
The international financial system provides short- and long-term loans as well as equity financing and direct investment. Foreign loans enable a country to supplement domestic savings for investment or to finance international trade. The industrial countries are by far the largest consumers (and providers) of international credit. But there are also substantial credit flows to developing countries and to Eastern Europe.

In the decade after the 1973 Arab oil embargoes, many developing countries borrowed heavily from abroad to defray the high cost of imported oil and continue their programs of economic expansion. About half of the $620 billion outstanding in 1982 was owed to private banks which in many cases had ready capital because of large deposits by Arab oil-exporting countries. High interest charges and declining exports magnified the burden.

Most developing countries have been able to service their foreign debts without interruption. But some of the largest debtors—including Argentina, Brazil, and Mexico—could not meet their scheduled payments. The creditor countries, the International Monetary Fund, and the banks involved have arranged to reschedule existing debts and provide new credits in return for pledges to abide by economic austerity plans. In 1983, 21 countries rescheduled their debts.

East European countries, with the exception of Bulgaria, also borrowed heavily from the West in the 1970s, mainly to finance the expansion of export industries. Poland and Romania have had to reschedule their debts; all thers have had to reduce imports from e West and take other measures to emain creditworthy.

U.S. banks have provided between 0% and 40% of private loans to ad- anced developing countries since 1973 t relatively little money to Eastern urope. In general, U.S. foreign loans e proportionate to the value of U.S. ade with the recipients.



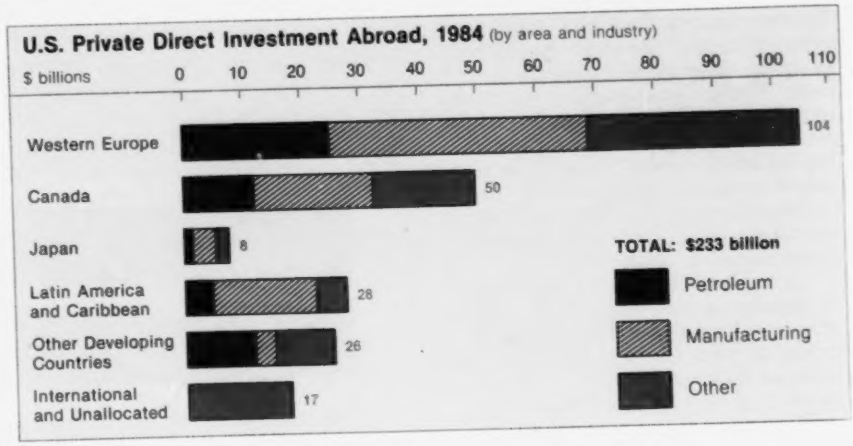
Foreign Debt to U.S. Banks, 1977-September 1984
current $ billions

Source: Federal Financial Institutions Examination Council, "Statistical Release: Country Exposure Lending Survey" (appropriate issues).

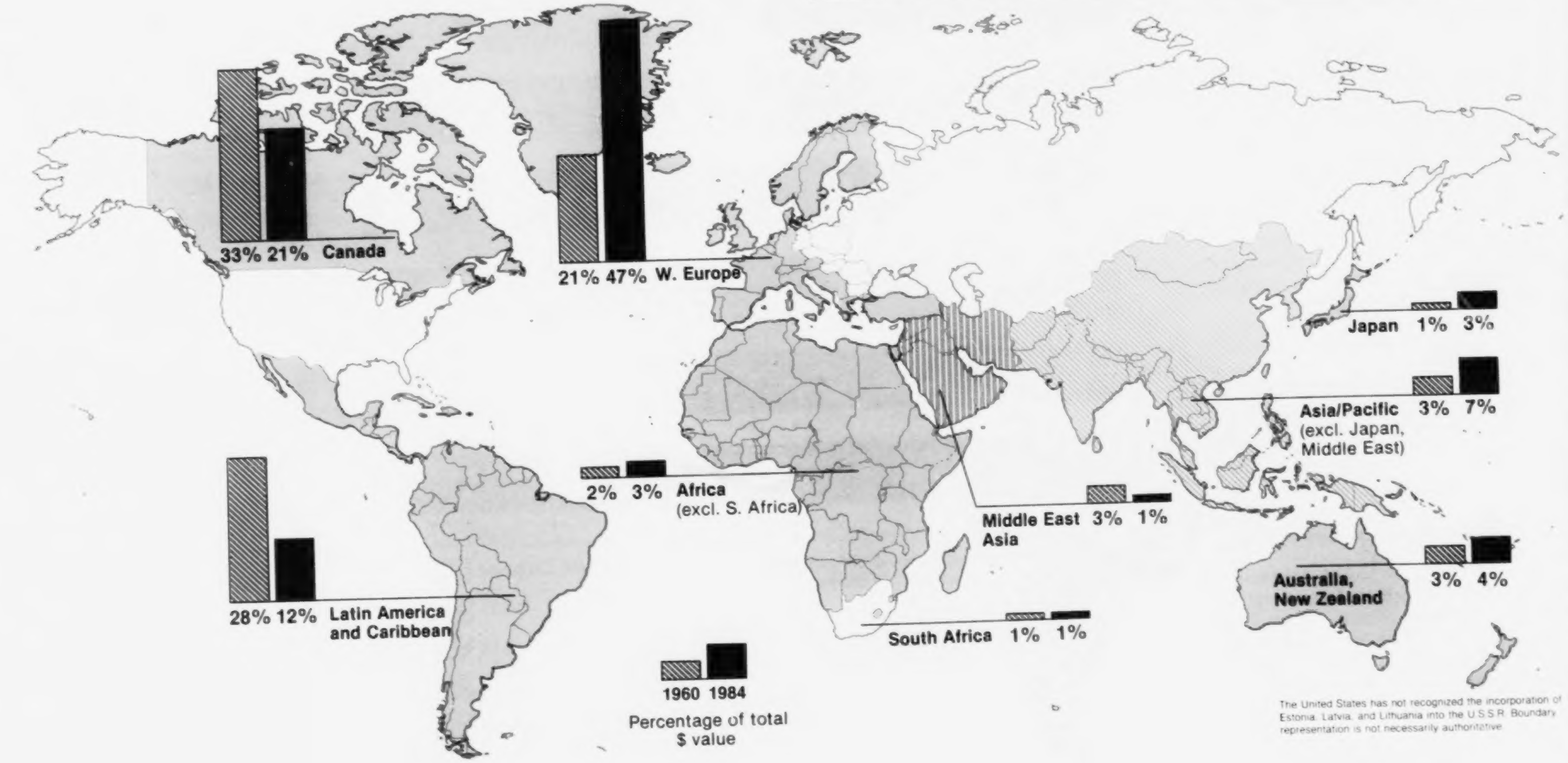
U.S. Private Direct Investment Abroad, 1960 and 1984

The United States is the largest source of foreign direct investment. But the rapid growth of Japanese and European investment abroad after 1960 caused the U.S. share of the world total to fall from more than 60% in 1961–67 to less than 30% in 1974–78. In the 1960s, U.S. firms invested heavily in the European Economic Community in order to take advantage of Europe's high growth potential and to avoid tariffs by manufacturing within the Community. Although only one-fourth of U.S. overseas direct investment is in developing countries, the United States accounted for more than one-third of Western direct investment flows to the Third World in the early 1970s and more than 40% in the 1980s. U.S. foreign direct investment expanded rapidly in the 1970s. But, not taking account of inflation, there has been only modest growth in the 1980s—from $227 billion in 1981 to $233 billion in 1984.

Source: Map and table data from Department of Commerce, *Statistical Abstract of the United States*, 1980, and *Survey of Current Business*, August 1985.



U.S. Private Direct Investment Abroad, 1984 (by area and industry)



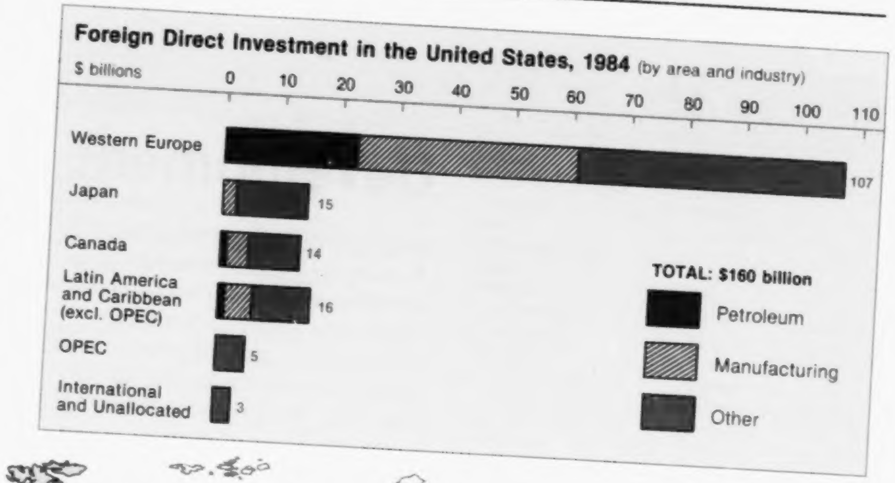
33% 21% Canada
21% 47% W. Europe
Japan 1% 3%
Asia/Pacific (excl. Japan, Middle East) 3% 7%
2% 3% Africa (excl. S. Africa)
Middle East Asia 3% 1%
28% 12% Latin America and Caribbean
Australia, New Zealand 3% 4%
South Africa 1% 1%
1960 1984
Percentage of total $ value

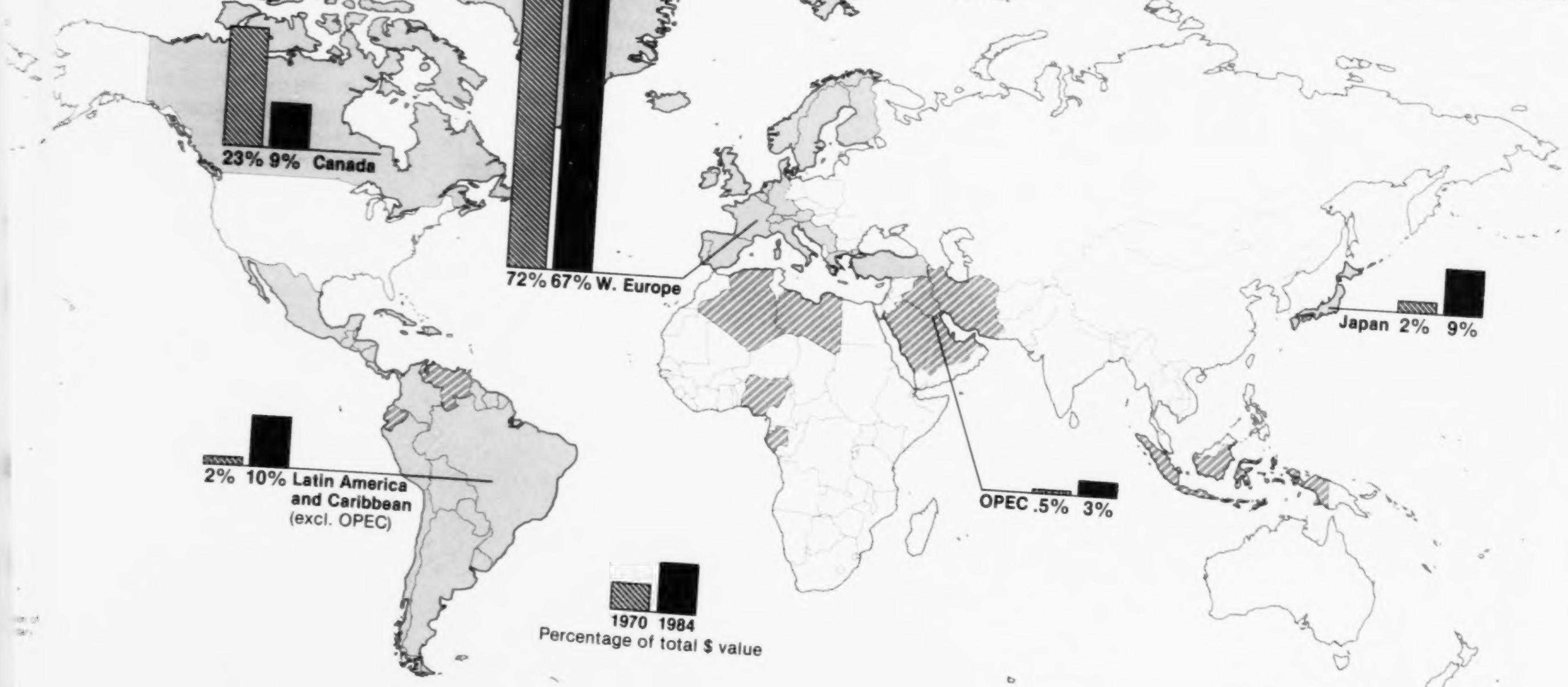
The United States has not recognized the incorporation of Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania into the U.S.S.R. Boundary representation is not necessarily authoritative.

Foreign Direct Investment in the United States, 1970 and 1984

In the 1970s the United States attracted large amounts of direct investment from abroad. This was due to the dollar's devaluation and confidence in U.S. economic strength. Between 1974 and 1978 the United States attracted one-quarter of the world's direct investment, with Western Europe accounting for about two-thirds of the inflow. Largest investors were the Netherlands mainly in the petroleum industry) and the United Kingdom (chiefly manufacturing and petroleum). Inflows continued to rise rapidly until 1981 (the rise from $68 billion to $90 billion in 1980–81 was the largest annual increase since World War II) but have grown at a much slower rate since then.

Source: Map and chart data from Department of Commerce, *Survey of Current Business*, February 1973, August 1985





23% 9% Canada
72% 67% W. Europe
Japan 2% 9%
2% 10% Latin America and Caribbean (excl. OPEC)
OPEC .5% 3%
1970 1984
Percentage of total $ value

The United States has not recognized the incorporation of Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania into the U.S.S.R. Boundary representation is not necessarily authoritative.

Development Assistance

This section illustrates the history and achievements of international development assistance—the effort to promote economic growth in poorer countries. Commonly known as foreign aid, development assistance takes the form of capital transfers, technical assistance, food and other commodity shipments, and special budgetary aid. Aid provided by international agencies from funds contributed by many governments is termed multilateral assistance, while that offered by a single government through its own foreign aid channels is called bilateral. The total flow of resources for development purposes includes private loans and investments.

Development assistance started after World War II as a largely American effort. To fulfill wartime hopes for world peace and prosperity, it was imperative to revive war-damaged economies and raise standards of living worldwide. The first comprehensive effort was the Marshall Plan for European recovery launched in 1947. Two years later President Truman announced "a bold new program for making the benefits of our scientific advances and industrial progress available for the improvement and growth of underdeveloped areas."

The current international effort took shape in the 1960s. In 1961 the U.S. Congress created a new agency to administer U.S. foreign aid—the Agency for International Development. Other countries—the U.S.S.R. as well as former Marshall Plan participants—were now providing development assistance. The Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) had begun its effort to coordinate and improve Western aid to developing countries. And in 1961, by a UN General Assembly resolution, the 1960s became the first UN development decade.

Although some European countries receive international economic aid, most development assistance goes to some 120 developing countries of Asia, Africa, and Latin America—the Third World. These nations vary widely in size, physical resources, and political experience, but they are all striving to overcome disadvantages that have kept them below the level of development achieved by Europe, North America, and Japan.

In this atlas developing countries are defined as all non-European countries that have received assistance from OECD members or international development agencies. Thus, China and centrally planned economies such as Cuba and Vietnam are listed along with developing market economies. China first began to receive aid from multilateral institutions and OECD donors in 1979. Israel, though an aid recipient, is included among the developed market economies.

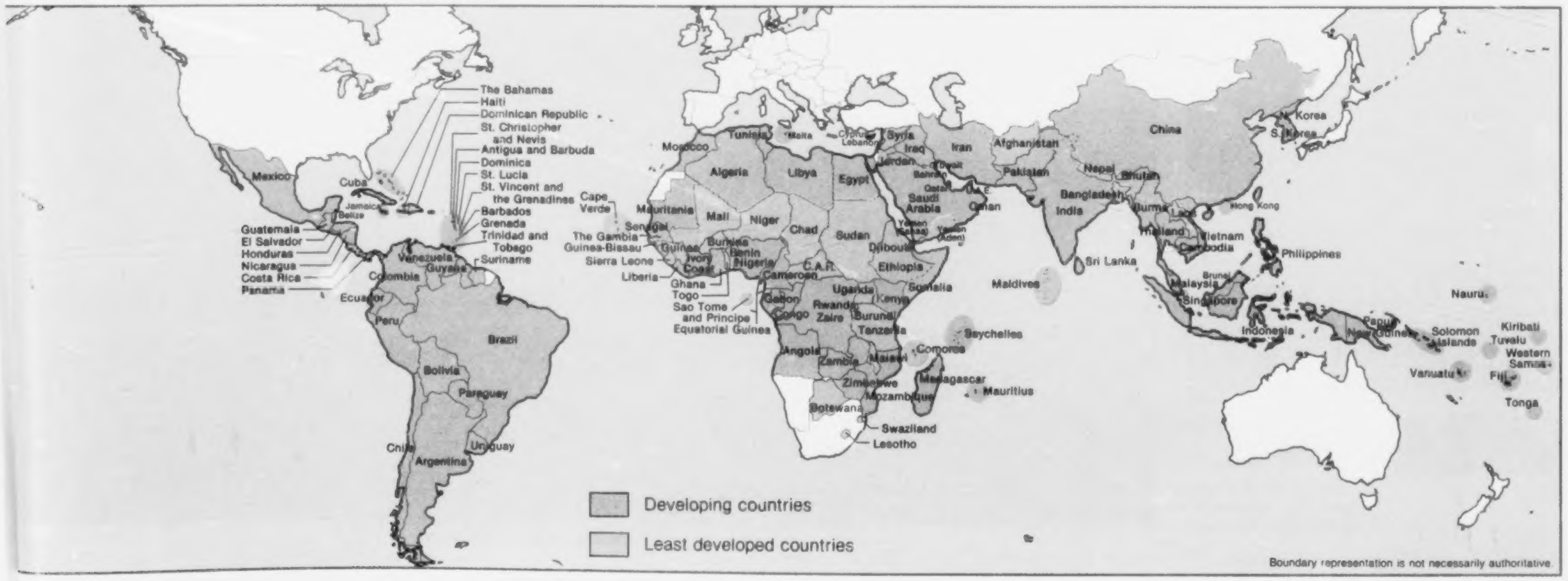
Developing and Least Developed Countries

Developing countries often are divided into subcategories based on income level or stage of industrial development. In 1971 the United Nations established the category of the least developed—a group characterized by the exceptionally small size of the gross national product and manufacturing sector as well as a low literacy rate. These are mostly landlocked states or isolated islands, and many have limited physical resources and a declining population due to emigration. In 1980 the least developed countries together received an average of about $20 of bilateral and multilateral official development assistance per inhabitant. The average for other developing countries was about $10.

Developing Countries

(Least developed countries are shown in boldface.)

Afghanistan
Algeria
Angola
Antigua and Barbuda
Argentina
The Bahamas
Bahrain
Bangladesh
Barbados
Belize
Benin
Bhutan
Bolivia
Botswana
Brazil
Brunei
Burkina
Burma
Burundi
Cambodia
Cameroon
Cape Verde
Central African Republic
Chad
Chile
China
Colombia
Comoros
Congo
Costa Rica
Cuba
Cyprus
Djibouti
Dominica
Dominican Republic
Ecuador
Egypt
Equatorial Guinea
El Salvador
Ethiopia
Fiji
Gabon
The Gambia
Ghana
Grenada
Guatemala
Guinea
Guinea-Bissau
Guyana
Haiti
Honduras
Hong Kong
India
Indonesia
Iran
Iraq
Ivory Coast
Jamaica
Jordan
Kenya
Kiribati
North Korea
South Korea
Kuwait
Laos
Lebanon
Lesotho
Liberia
Libya
Madagascar
Malawi
Malaysia
Maldives
Mali
Malta
Mauritania
Mauritius
Mexico
Morocco
Mozambique
Nauru
Nepal
Nicaragua
Niger
Nigeria
Oman
Pakistan
Panama
Papua New Guinea
Paraguay
Peru
Philippines
Qatar
Rwanda
St. Christopher and Nevis
St. Lucia
St. Vincent and the Grenadines
Sao Tome and Principe
Saudi Arabia
Senegal
Seychelles
Sierra Leone
Singapore
Solomon Islands
Somalia
Sri Lanka
Sudan
Suriname
Swaziland
Syria
Tanzania
Thailand
Togo
Tonga
Trinidad and Tobago
Tunisia
Tuvalu
Uganda
United Arab Emirates
Uruguay
Vanuatu
Venezuela
Vietnam
Western Samoa
Yemen (Aden)
Yemen (Sanaa)
Zaire
Zambia
Zimbabwe


The Bahamas
Haiti
Dominican Republic
St. Christopher and Nevis
Antigua and Barbuda
Dominica
St. Lucia
St. Vincent and the Grenadines
Barbados
Grenada
Trinidad and Tobago
Suriname
Mexico
Cuba
Jamaica
Belize
Guatemala
El Salvador
Honduras
Nicaragua
Costa Rica
Panama
Venezuela
Guyana
Colombia
Ecuador
Peru
Brazil
Bolivia
Paraguay
Chile
Argentina
Uruguay
Cape Verde
Morocco
Mauritania
Senegal
The Gambia
Guinea-Bissau
Guinea
Sierra Leone
Liberia
Ivory Coast
Ghana
Togo
Sao Tome and Principe
Equatorial Guinea
Mali
Burkina
Benin
Nigeria
Niger
Algeria
Tunisia
Malta
Libya
Chad
Cameroon
C.A.R.
Gabon
Congo
Egypt
Sudan
Cyprus
Lebanon
Syria
Iraq
Jordan
Kuwait
Bahrain
Qatar
U.A.E.
Saudi Arabia
Oman
Yemen (Sanaa)
Yemen (Aden)
Djibouti
Ethiopia
Somalia
Uganda
Kenya
Rwanda
Burundi
Zaire
Tanzania
Angola
Zambia
Malawi
Zimbabwe
Mozambique
Botswana
Swaziland
Lesotho
Comoros
Seychelles
Madagascar
Mauritius
Maldives
Iran
Afghanistan
Pakistan
India
Sri Lanka
Nepal
Bhutan
Bangladesh
China
N. Korea
S. Korea
Hong Kong
Burma
Laos
Thailand
Vietnam
Cambodia
Philippines
Brunei
Malaysia
Singapore
Indonesia
Papua New Guinea
Solomon Islands
Nauru
Kiribati
Tuvalu
Western Samoa
Vanuatu
Fiji
Tonga
▨ Developing countries
☐ Least developed countries
Boundary representation is not necessarily authoritative

Official Development Assistance

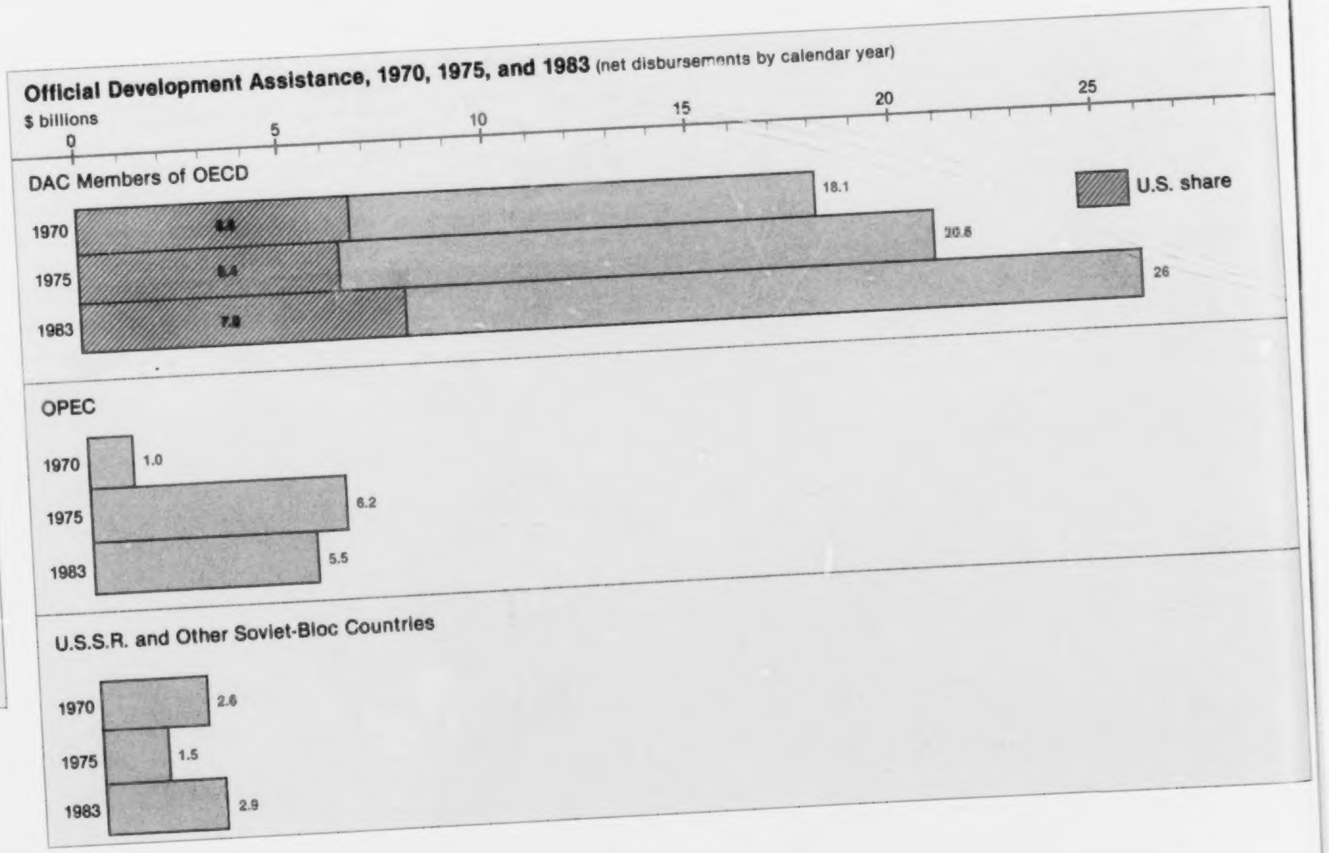
Official development assistance is a technical term referring to the transfer of goods, services, or capital from one government to another to help the recipient develop its economy and raise its standard of living. One-quarter of such transfers must be in the form of grants, while loans and credits must be concessional, that is, given on a long-term, low-interest basis. Official development assistance also includes contributions to international agencies that finance development projects, such as the World Bank.

The Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development comprises 24 developed market economies. Seventeen of these countries, the organization's major foreign aid donors, belong to the Development Assistance Committee (DAC), where they consult on all foreign aid issues. U.S. foreign aid, though by far the largest as a sum, is smaller than most other members' as a percentage of gross national product.

Members of the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) began to provide foreign aid in the late 1960s. For several years their combined contributions did not exceed $500 million annually. After 1973—when oil price increases produced a sharp rise in OPEC revenues and (in 1974) added $10 billion to the oil import bill of other developing countries—OPEC foreign aid grew substantially. In the 1980s it has declined.

Official Development Assistance by DAC Members, 1983

Member	% of GNP	Net Disbursements ($ millions)
Netherlands	1.08	1,195
Sweden	1.02	754
Norway	.99	584
Denmark	.76	395
Belgium	.59	480
Australia	.56	753
France	.49	2,500
Germany, Federal Republic of	.48	3,176
Canada	.41	1,429
United Kingdom	.37	1,605
Austria	.35	157
Finland	.30	153
Japan	.28	3,761
New Zealand	.28	61
United States	.27	7,992
Switzerland	.25	320
Italy	.24	827
Total DAC		**26,142**



Source for table and graph: OECD, *Development Cooperation: Efforts and Policies of the Members of the Development Assistance Committee, 1984 Review.*

Multilateral Development Assistance

An ever-larger share of official develop-
nent assistance is channeled through in-
ernational agencies providing capital,
echnical assistance, or emergency aid to
eveloping countries. Between 1970 and
983, the multilateral share of official
evelopment assistance contributed by
evelopment Assistance Committee
AC) members of the Organization for
onomic Cooperation and Development
ECD) rose from 16% to more than
%. U.S. contributions to multilateral
encies rose from about 16% to more
n 35% in this period. The coexistence
multilateral and bilateral aid pro-
ams is generally regarded as
eficial. While international agencies
e the advantage of accumulated
wledge, bilateral programs often
e to be more flexible.

ce: OECD, *Geographical Distribution of*
cial Flows to Developing Countries, 1978
Development Cooperation: Efforts and Policies
Members of the Development Assistance Com-
e 1980 Review, 1984 Review.

Multilateral Development Agencies

Institution	Year Established	Form of Aid	Expenditures or Authorizations, 1982 ($ millions)
World Bank Group			
International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (World Bank)	1944	Near-commercial-rate and some concessional loans for specific projects	10,309
International Development Association	1959	Concessional loans for projects in poorest developing countries	2,687
International Finance Corporation	1956	Loans to and equity investment in private enterprises	612
Regional Development Banks			
African Development Bank	1963	Near-commercial-rate and concessional loans for specific projects	428
Asian Development Bank	1965	Near-commercial-rate and concessional loans for specific projects	1,661
Inter-American Development Bank	1959	Near-commercial-rate and concessional loans for specific projects	1,947
Agriculture and Food Aid			
Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations	1945	Technical assistance in farm production and marketing	172
International Fund for Agricultural Development	1976	Concessional loans for projects to raise food production and reduce rural poverty	290
World Food Program	1962	Emergency food donations	505
Consultative Group on International Agricultural Research	1971	Techniques to improve crops and eliminate crop diseases	171[a]
UN Development Program	1965 (first predecessor, 1948)	Technical assistance in all fields in cooperation with other agencies	859
UN Fund for Population Activities	1972	Grants for all areas of population and family planning	106
World Health Organization	1946	Technical assistance for national health programs and emergency aid	180
		TOTAL:	**19,927**

[a] Includes special projects.

Source: Figures from Department of State, *United States Contributions to International Organizations: Report to the Congress for Fiscal Year 1983*, 1984; Agency for International Development, *U.S. Overseas Loans and Grants and Assistance from International Organizations: Obligations and Loan Authorizations July 1, 1945-September 30, 1984*, 1985; Consultative Group on International Agricultural Research.

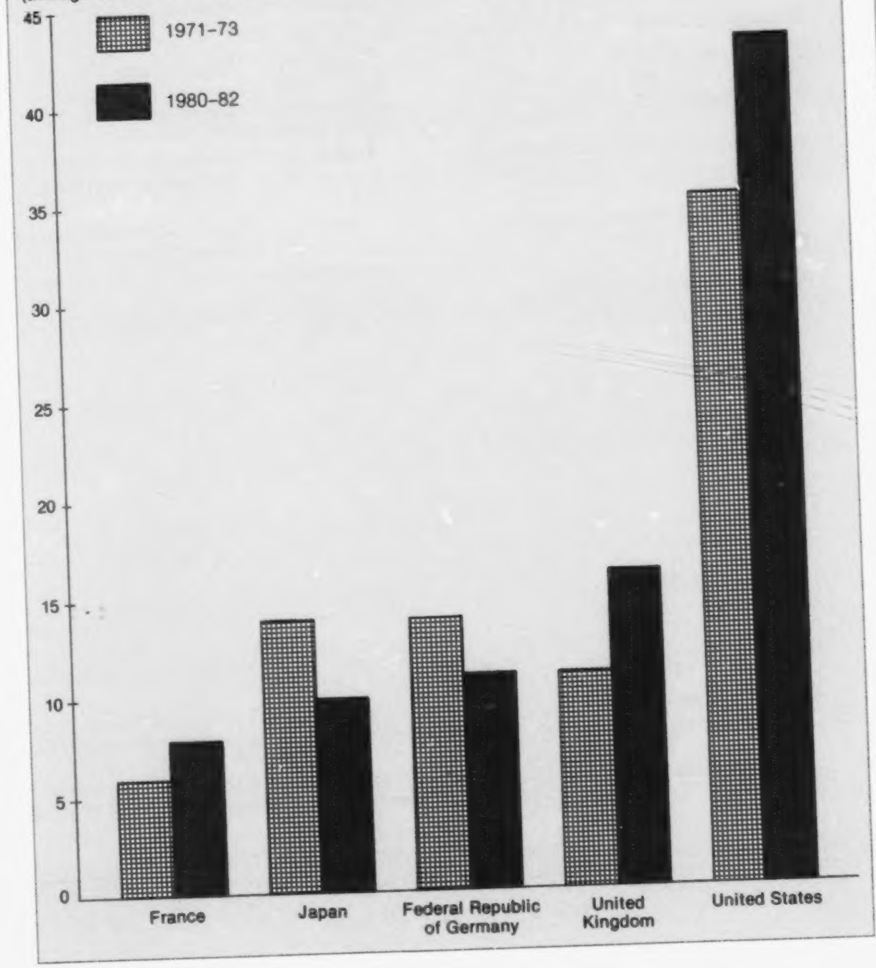
Foreign Direct Investment in Developing Countries

Private direct investment—the purchase of a substantial interest in an enterprise—has been an important source of technology and managerial know-how for developing countries and has played a vital role in the industrialization of economies such as Brazil, Singapore, South Korea, and Taiwan. Forming about 20% of total financial flows to developing countries in 1970, direct investment did not grow in real terms in the 1970s (while bank lending more than doubled). Countries taking part in the Development Assistance Committee (DAC) of the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development are the chief sources of private financial flows to developing countries, and the chief direct investors are relatively few major companies from the United States, the United Kingdom, the Federal Republic of Germany, and Japan. The chief recipients are countries with extensive natural resources, large internal markets, or economic policies that encourage the development of export industries.

Source: OECD, *Geographical Distribution of Financial Flows to Developing Countries*, 1978, 1984; *Development Cooperation: Efforts and Policies of the Members of the Development Assistance Committee*, 1979 Review, 1984 Review.

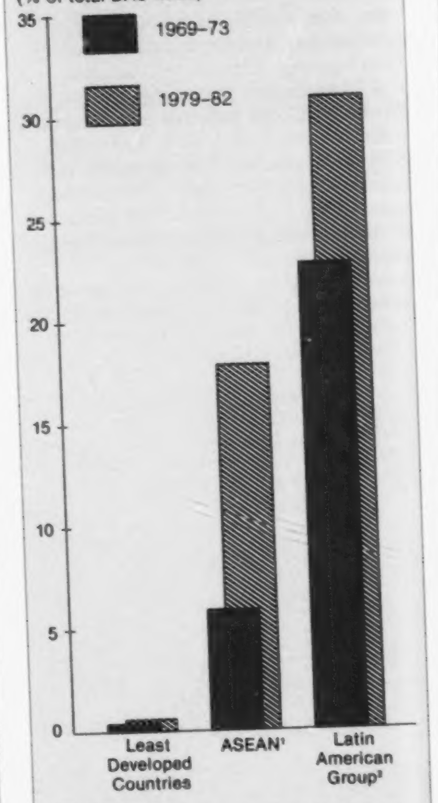
Chief Sources of Private Direct Investment in the Third World, 1971-73 and 1980-82

(average % of total DAC flows)



Smallest and Largest Recipients of DAC Private Direct Investment in the Third World, 1969-73 and 1979-82

(% of total DAC flows)



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[1] Association of South East Asian Nations (excluding Brunei): Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand

[2] Latin America's largest recipients of foreign direct investment: Argentina, Brazil, Colombia, Mexico, Peru.

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n the
-82

Latin
merican
Group²

n Nations
s, Philip-

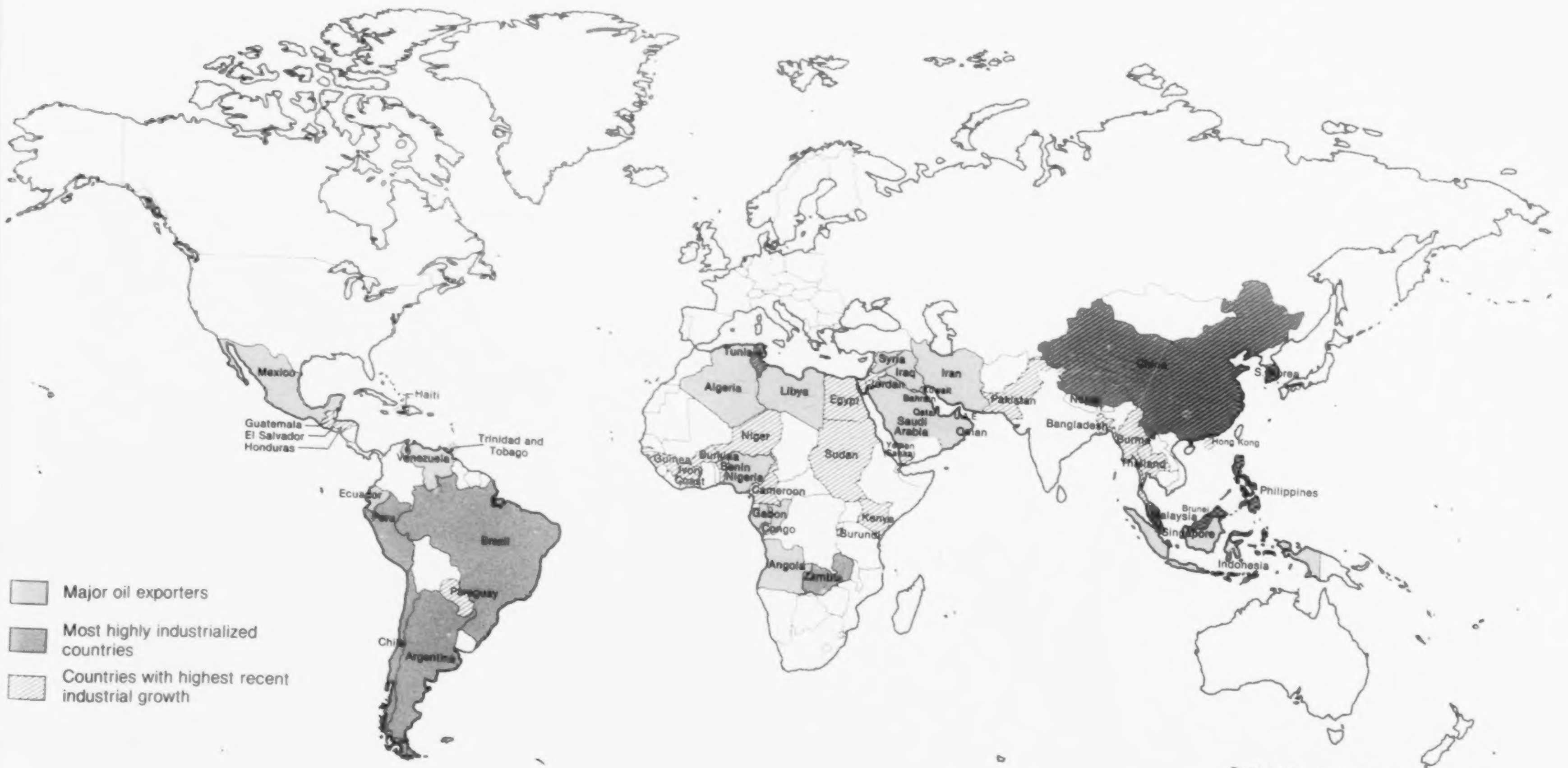
nts of
Brazil.

Third World Industrial Development

Early development planning stressed industrial growth as the road to a modern society and higher standard of living. The industrial share of the gross domestic product has increased in most developing countries since 1960, and in some, skillful use of foreign aid and other factors have led to rapid industrial growth with equitable distribution of incomes. Petroleum reserves have provided a basis for industrial development in about 20 Third World countries. Most of these countries have been chiefly producers and exporters of crude oil. But many have taken advantage of the surpluses accumulated in the 1970s to develop petrochemical industries and other, non-oil sectors of the economy. The only major Third World oil exporters where industry accounts for less than 35% of the gross domestic product are Angola, Gabon, Nigeria, and Syria.

Countries classified here as the most highly industrialized are non-oil exporters where industry accounts for 35% or more of gross domestic product. Those with the highest recent growth are countries with 5% or more annual industrial growth between 1973 and 1983.

Source: Percentages from World Bank, *World Development Report 1985*, and U.S. Government.


Mexico
Haiti
Guatemala
El Salvador
Honduras
Trinidad and Tobago
Venezuela
Ecuador
Peru
Brazil
Paraguay
Chile
Argentina
Tunisia
Algeria
Libya
Egypt
Syria
Iraq
Iran
Jordan
Kuwait
Bahrain
Qatar
Saudi Arabia
Oman
Yemen (Aden)
Sudan
Niger
Guinea
Ivory Coast
Burkina
Benin
Nigeria
Cameroon
Gabon
Congo
Kenya
Burundi
Angola
Zambia
Pakistan
Nepal
Bangladesh
China
S. Korea
Hong Kong
Burma
Thailand
Philippines
Brunei
Malaysia
Singapore
Indonesia
Major oil exporters
Most highly industrialized countries
Countries with highest recent industrial growth

The United States has not recognized the incorporation of Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania into the U.S.S.R. Boundary representation is not necessarily authoritative.

Third World Agricultural Development

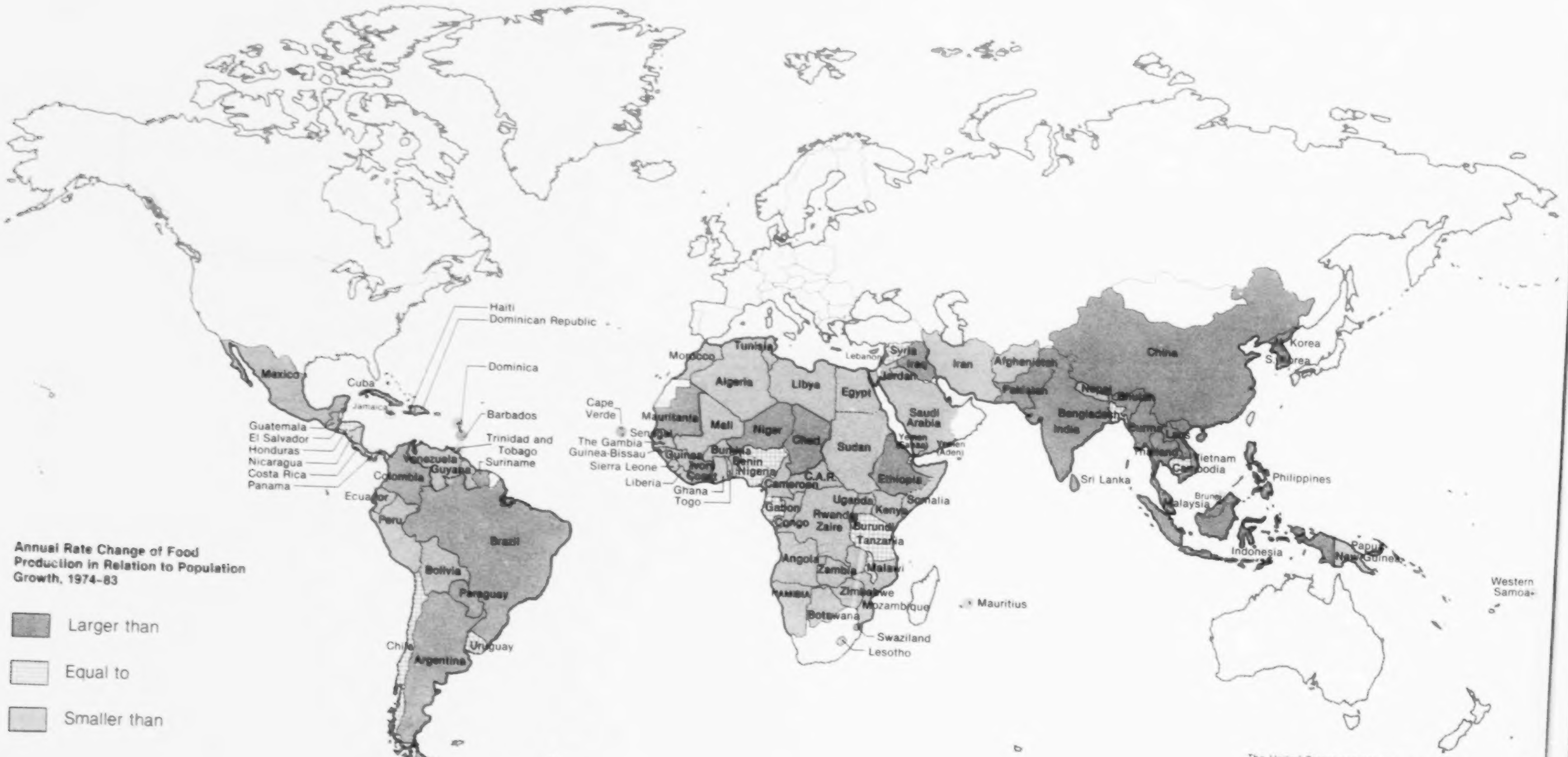
Agricultural and industrial development are intimately related. Efficient farming can afford better nutrition, reduce food imports, provide export earnings, and enlarge the market for domestic industries.

In the 1960s, many developing countries experienced a great surge in food production known as the green revolution. This resulted from the use of high-yielding seeds (most developed by American experts), greater use of fertilizer, and better farm practices. In Thailand, Malaysia, and the Ivory Coast, improved and diversified farming helped to finance industrial expansion. And in Singapore, South Korea, and Taiwan, the establishment of an efficient agriculture preceded rapid industrialization.

Many economies made further progress in the 1970s. In the Third World as a whole, food supplies more than kept pace with population growth. But progress varied from region to region. While in the world's most populous countries—including China and India—food production from 1974 to 1983 increased more rapidly than population, the opposite was true in over 50 other developing countries. In Africa as a whole, food production increased only 1.9% (compared with 3.4% in the Far East), and in the least developed African countries food production declined.

The United States is the leading contributor of international food aid. Concessional sales and gifts of U.S. agricultural commodities have been possible under PL 480 since 1954. Title III, passed in 1977, provides incentives to poor developing countries to increase food production and raise rural standards of living. The United States contributes more than one-half of supplies distributed by international food aid programs.

Source: Data on food production since 1974 from Food and Agriculture Organization, *The State of Food and Agriculture 1984: Council Report CL 86/2, August 1984.* No data for developing countries not included on map.


Annual Rate Change of Food Production in Relation to Population Growth, 1974-83
Larger than
Equal to
Smaller than
Haiti
Dominican Republic
Dominica
Barbados
Trinidad and Tobago
Suriname
Mexico
Cuba
Jamaica
Guatemala
El Salvador
Honduras
Nicaragua
Costa Rica
Panama
Venezuela
Guyana
Colombia
Ecuador
Peru
Brazil
Bolivia
Paraguay
Chile
Uruguay
Argentina
Cape Verde
Senegal
The Gambia
Guinea-Bissau
Sierra Leone
Liberia
Ghana
Togo
Morocco
Tunisia
Algeria
Libya
Egypt
Mauritania
Mali
Niger
Chad
Sudan
Guinea
Burkina
Benin
Ivory Coast
Nigeria
Cameroon
C.A.R.
Ethiopia
Somalia
Uganda
Kenya
Gabon
Congo
Rwanda
Zaire
Burundi
Tanzania
Angola
Zambia
Malawi
NAMIBIA
Zimbabwe
Mozambique
Botswana
Swaziland
Lesotho
Mauritius
Lebanon
Syria
Iraq
Jordan
Iran
Saudi Arabia
Yemen (Sanaa)
Yemen (Aden)
Afghanistan
Pakistan
Nepal
Bhutan
Bangladesh
India
Sri Lanka
China
Korea
S. Korea
Burma
Laos
Thailand
Vietnam
Cambodia
Philippines
Brunei
Malaysia
Indonesia
Papua New Guinea
Western Samoa

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Developing Country Export Growth

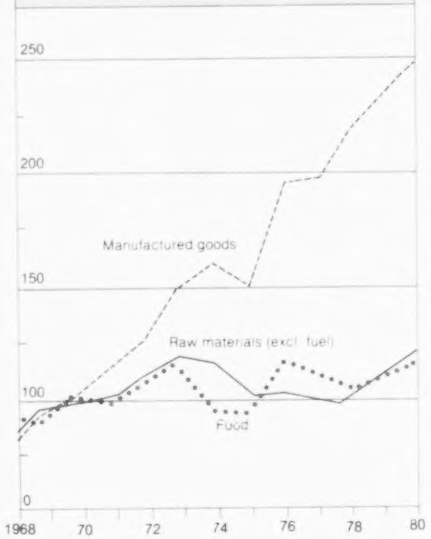
Most developing countries depend on exports to pay for imported food, energy, and capital goods needed for their development. Almost all developing economies greatly increased their exports in the 1960s. But the world recessions of 1974–75 and 1980–83 interrupted their growth. Except for the maor exporters of manufactured goods Argentina, Brazil, Hong Kong, South Korea, Singapore, and Taiwan), the share of merchandise imports covered y exports declined in the 1980s. Developing countries deriving most of their income from oil experienced an absolute export decline (and some, a trade deficit) in the 1980s as oil prices fell and the oil trade contracted.

Third World exports benefit from the generalized system of preferences, a system of tariff preferences for developing countries introduced in the 1970s by industrial countries belonging to the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD). Aid programs have encouraged recipients to diversify their economies so as to reduce their dependence on one or a few export commodities.

Source: Map data from World Bank, *World Development Report 1981, 1985*; graph adapted from *World Development Report 1981* with recent figures from UNCTAD; table based on IMF, *Direction of Trade Statistics Yearbook 1984*, 1984. No data for developing countries not shown.

Developing Country Exports to OECD Countries and South Africa, 1968–80

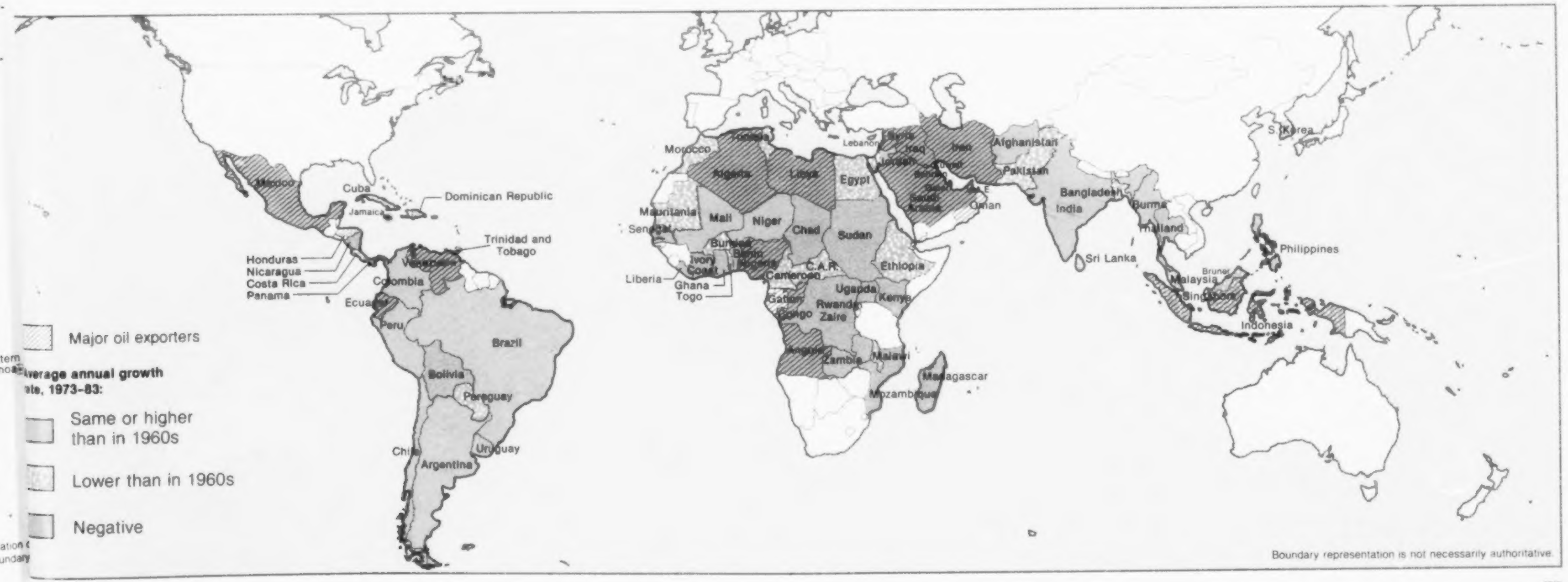
Volume change (1970 = 100)



Developing Country Markets, 1983

$ billions

TOTAL EXPORTS	**492**
Exports to OECD members	308
Japan	*63*
United States	*52*
West Germany	*35*
Developing Countries	129
Soviet Bloc	29

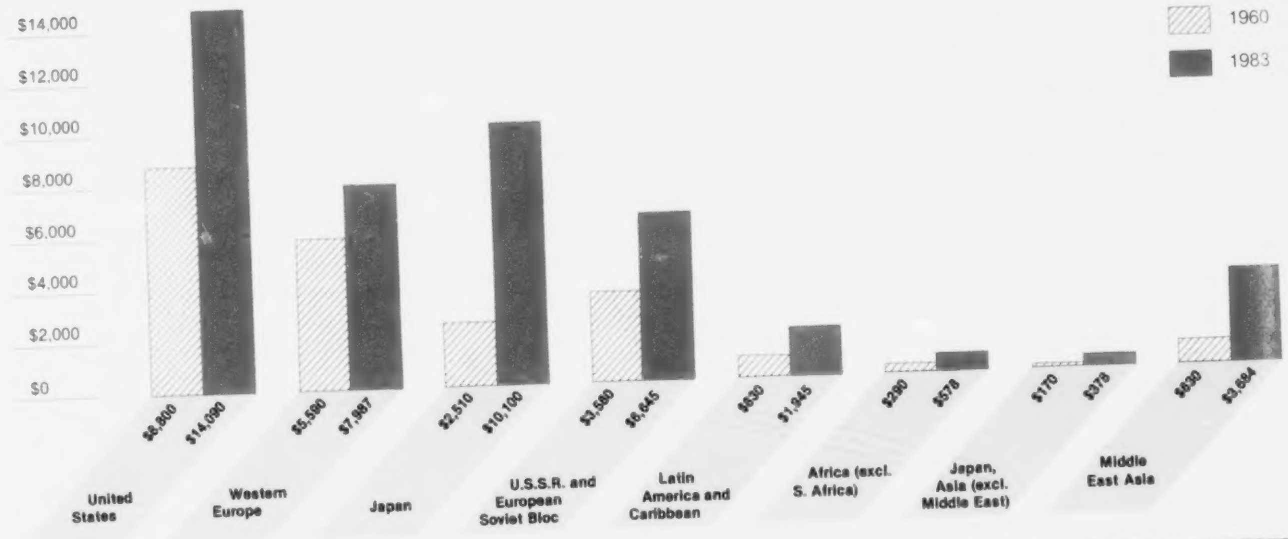

Major oil exporters
Average annual growth rate, 1973–83:
Same or higher than in 1960s
Lower than in 1960s
Negative
Mexico
Cuba
Jamaica
Dominican Republic
Trinidad and Tobago
Honduras
Nicaragua
Costa Rica
Panama
Venezuela
Colombia
Ecuador
Peru
Brazil
Bolivia
Paraguay
Chile
Uruguay
Argentina
Morocco
Algeria
Tunisia
Libya
Egypt
Mauritania
Senegal
Mali
Niger
Chad
Sudan
Burkina
Benin
Nigeria
Ivory Coast
Liberia
Ghana
Togo
C.A.R.
Cameroon
Ethiopia
Gabon
Congo
Uganda
Kenya
Rwanda
Zaire
Angola
Zambia
Malawi
Mozambique
Madagascar
Lebanon
Syria
Iraq
Iran
Jordan
Kuwait
Qatar
U.A.E.
Saudi Arabia
Oman
Afghanistan
Pakistan
India
Bangladesh
Sri Lanka
Burma
Thailand
Malaysia
Brunei
Singapore
Indonesia
Philippines
S. Korea
Boundary representation is not necessarily authoritative.

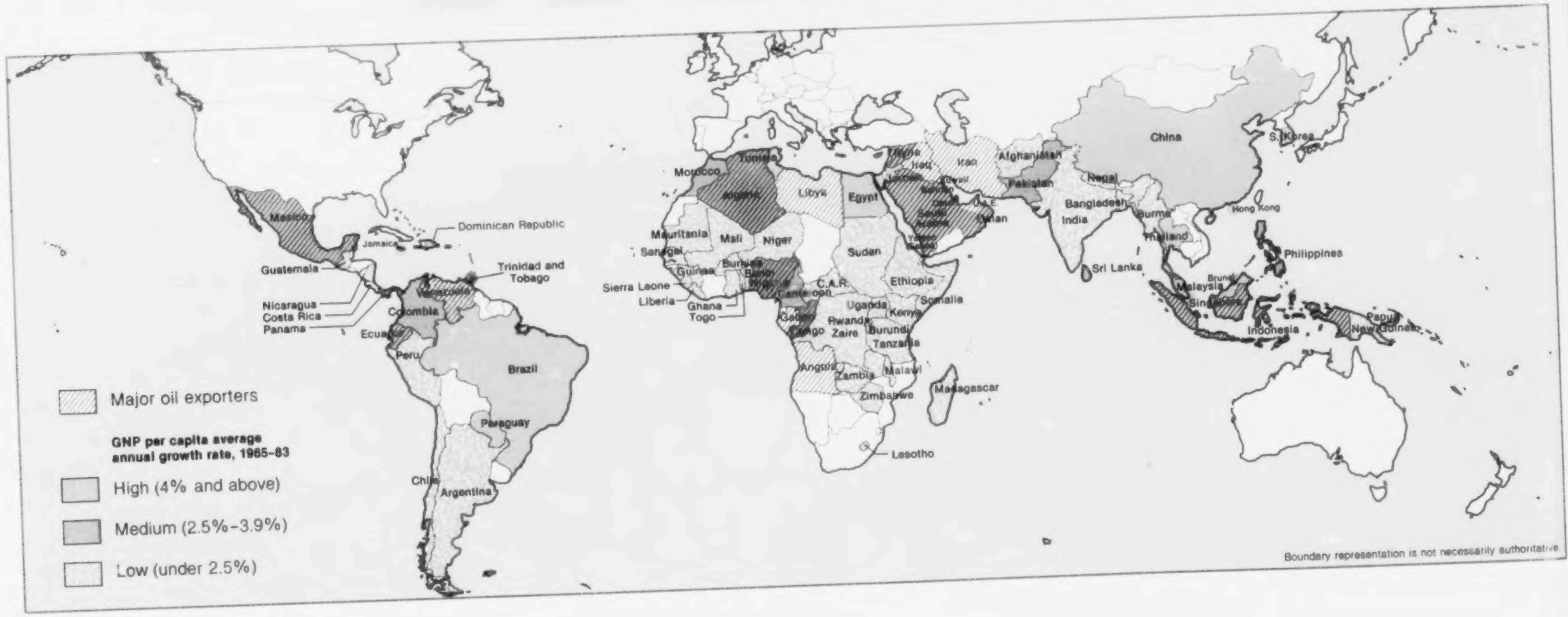
GNP Growth Rate in Developing Countries

General economic growth is indicated by changes in the gross national product (GNP) or per capita GNP. Developing countries' per capita GNP rose faster than the industrial economies' in the 1960s and 1970s. Asian oil-importing countries as a whole had the world's highest growth rate in the 1960s, a rate second only to the high-income oil exporters in the 1970s, and a smaller decline than any other regional or income grouping during the recession of the early 1980s. African oil importers as a whole experienced modest growth in the 1960s, slight growth in the 1970s, and negative growth in the 1980s. High-income oil exporters (Arab Persian Gulf countries, Libya, and Brunei) showed the highest rise in the 1970s but the steepest decline in the 1980s (due to the fall in oil prices).

Source for map data: World Bank, *World Development Report 1985*; for graph: CIA. No data for developing countries not included on map.

Regional Per Capita GNP, 1960 and 1983 (constant 1983 dollars)

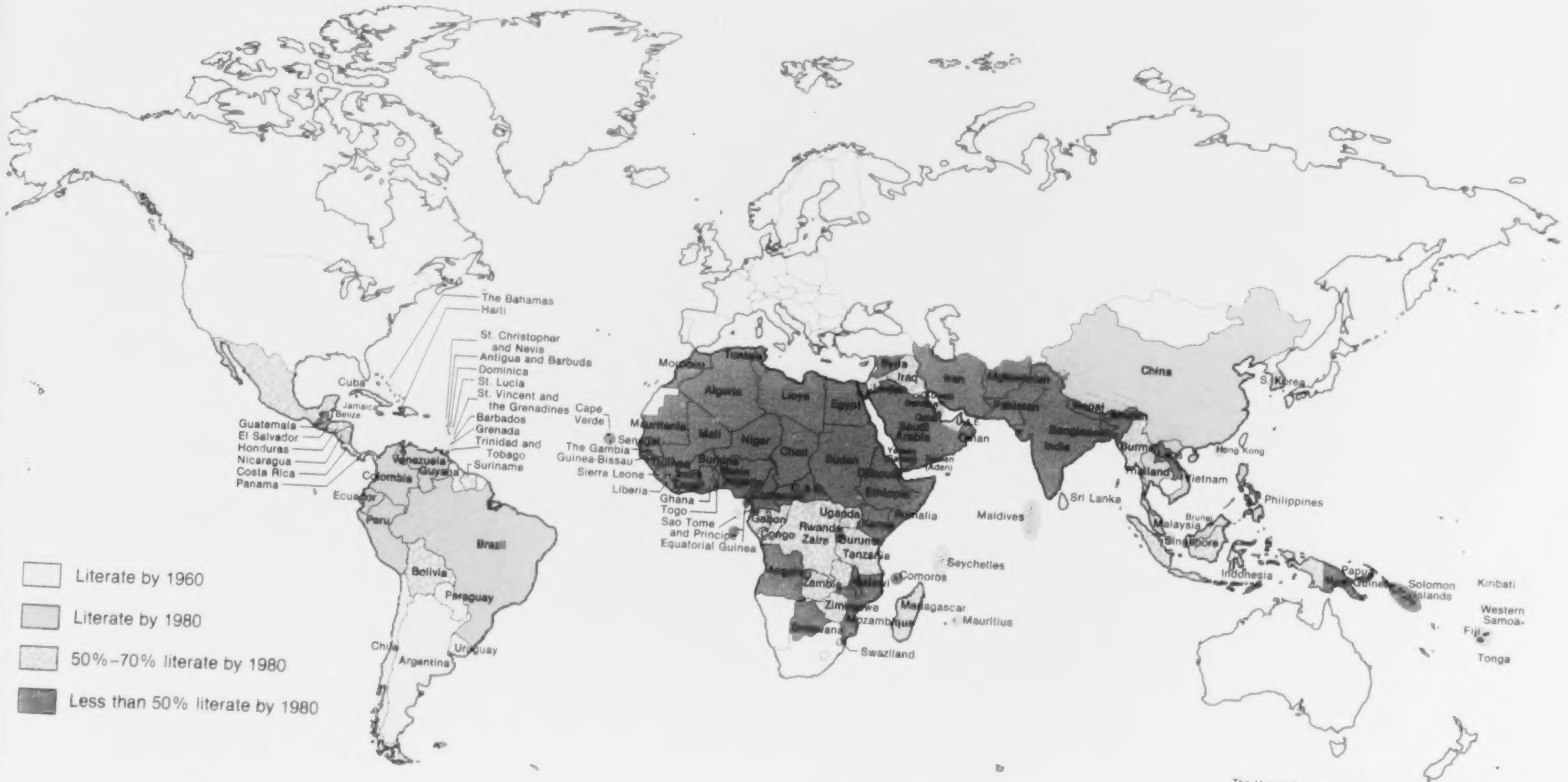



Major oil exporters
GNP per capita average annual growth rate, 1965-83
High (4% and above)
Medium (2.5%-3.9%)
Low (under 2.5%)
Mexico
Guatemala
Nicaragua
Costa Rica
Panama
Jamaica
Dominican Republic
Trinidad and Tobago
Venezuela
Colombia
Ecuador
Peru
Brazil
Paraguay
Chile
Argentina
Morocco
Tunisia
Algeria
Libya
Egypt
Mauritania
Senegal
Mali
Niger
Guinea
Sierra Leone
Liberia
Ghana
Togo
Burkina
Benin
Nigeria
Cameroon
C.A.R.
Sudan
Ethiopia
Somalia
Uganda
Kenya
Rwanda
Burundi
Gabon
Congo
Zaire
Tanzania
Angola
Zambia
Malawi
Zimbabwe
Madagascar
Lesotho
Syria
Iraq
Iran
Kuwait
Saudi Arabia
Yemen
Oman
Afghanistan
Pakistan
Nepal
India
Bangladesh
Sri Lanka
Burma
Thailand
China
S. Korea
Hong Kong
Philippines
Malaysia
Brunei
Singapore
Indonesia
Papua New Guinea
Boundary representation is not necessarily authoritative

Literacy in Developing Countries, 1960-80

To promote economic development, virtually all developing countries have organized campaigns to eradicate illiteracy. A country is regarded as literate if 75% of the population can read and write a simple sentence. In the industrial countries of Europe and North America, the process of becoming literate lasted 75–100 years. In sub-Saharan Africa the average rate of literacy rose from 14% in 1960 to about 30% in 1980. Despite impressive gains, more than 900 million adults in developing countries cannot read and write a simple sentence.

Sources: Basic data from UNESCO and Department of State. No data for developing countries not shown.


The Bahamas
Haiti
St. Christopher and Nevis
Antigua and Barbuda
Dominica
St. Lucia
St. Vincent and the Grenadines
Barbados
Grenada
Trinidad and Tobago
Suriname
Cuba
Jamaica
Belize
Guatemala
El Salvador
Honduras
Nicaragua
Costa Rica
Panama
Venezuela
Guyana
Colombia
Ecuador
Peru
Brazil
Bolivia
Paraguay
Chile
Argentina
Uruguay
Cape Verde
Senegal
The Gambia
Guinea-Bissau
Sierra Leone
Liberia
Ghana
Togo
Sao Tome and Principe
Equatorial Guinea
Morocco
Tunisia
Algeria
Libya
Egypt
Mauritania
Mali
Niger
Chad
Sudan
Guinea
Burkina
Benin
Djibouti
Ethiopia
Somalia
Uganda
Gabon
Congo
Rwanda
Zaire
Burundi
Tanzania
Zambia
Malawi
Comoros
Zimbabwe
Mozambique
Botswana
Swaziland
Madagascar
Mauritius
Seychelles
Syria
Iraq
Iran
Saudi Arabia
Qatar
U.A.E.
Oman
Yemen
Yemen (Aden)
Afghanistan
Pakistan
Nepal
India
Bangladesh
Sri Lanka
Maldives
China
S. Korea
Hong Kong
Burma
Laos
Thailand
Vietnam
Philippines
Brunei
Malaysia
Singapore
Indonesia
Papua New Guinea
Solomon Islands
Kiribati
Western Samoa
Fiji
Tonga
☐ Literate by 1960
▨ Literate by 1980
▨ 50%–70% literate by 1980
■ Less than 50% literate by 1980

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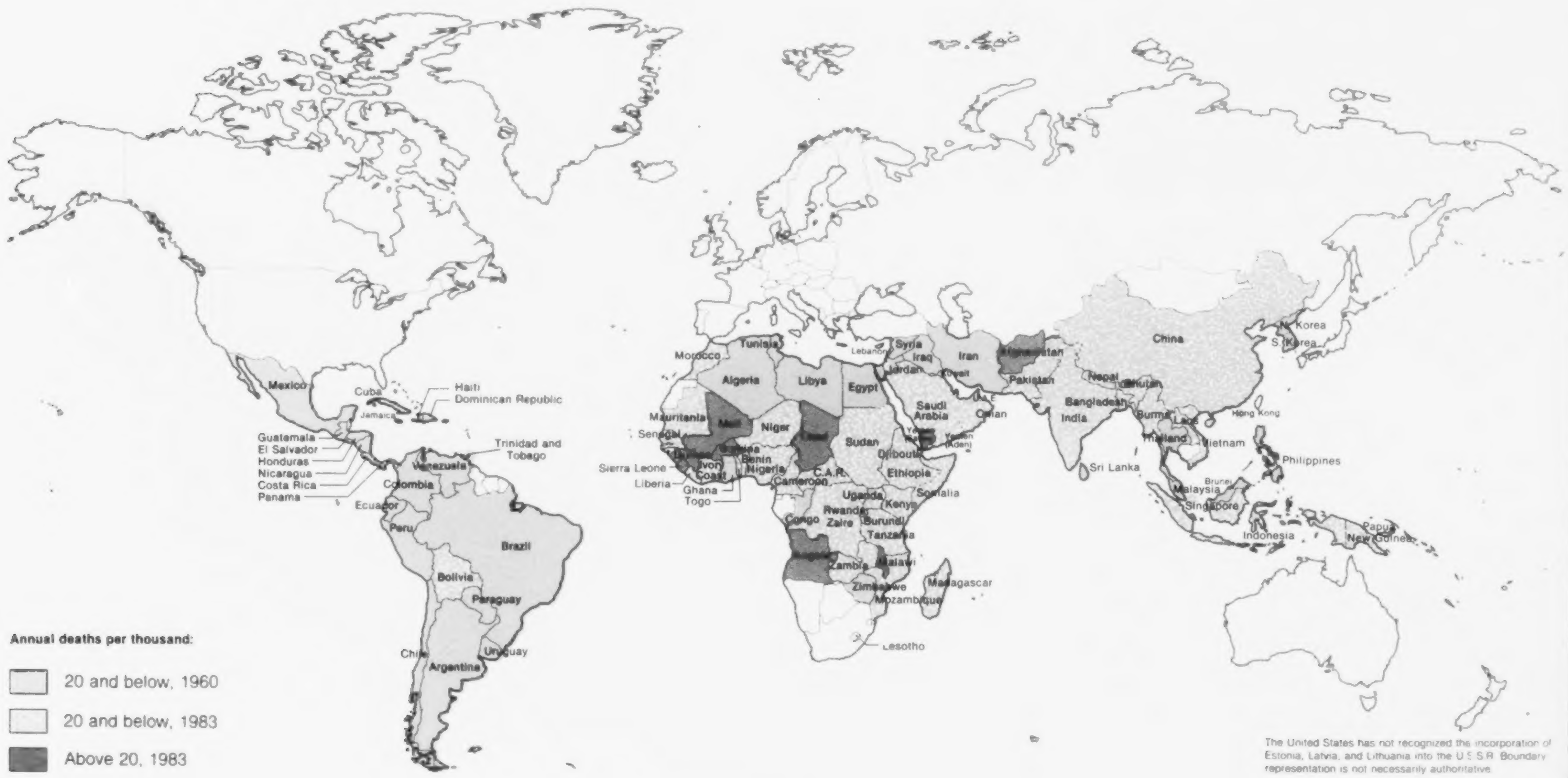
Death Rate Reduction in Developing Countries, 1960-83

The declining death rates that all developing countries experienced after 1960 are due primarily to improvements in public health and sanitation as well as nutrition. In 1983 most developing countries had an annual death rate of fewer than 20 per thousand persons. By comparison, the U.S. death rate declined from 9.5 in 1960 to 8.6 in 1981.

Declining death rates combined with continued high fertility in many places are responsible for the rapid population growth in developing countries in the past 20 years.

Source: Map data from World Bank, *World Development Report 1984, 1985.* No data available for developing countries not included on map.


Mexico
Cuba
Jamaica
Haiti
Dominican Republic
Trinidad and Tobago
Guatemala
El Salvador
Honduras
Nicaragua
Costa Rica
Panama
Venezuela
Colombia
Ecuador
Peru
Brazil
Bolivia
Paraguay
Chile
Argentina
Uruguay
Morocco
Tunisia
Algeria
Libya
Egypt
Mauritania
Senegal
Mali
Niger
Chad
Sudan
Sierra Leone
Liberia
Ivory Coast
Ghana
Togo
Benin
Nigeria
Cameroon
C.A.R.
Ethiopia
Djibouti
Somalia
Uganda
Kenya
Rwanda
Burundi
Congo
Zaire
Tanzania
Angola
Zambia
Malawi
Zimbabwe
Mozambique
Madagascar
Lesotho
Lebanon
Syria
Iraq
Jordan
Kuwait
Iran
Saudi Arabia
Yemen
Yemen (Aden)
Oman
Afghanistan
Pakistan
Nepal
Bhutan
India
Bangladesh
Sri Lanka
China
N. Korea
S. Korea
Burma
Laos
Thailand
Vietnam
Hong Kong
Philippines
Malaysia
Brunei
Singapore
Indonesia
Papua New Guinea

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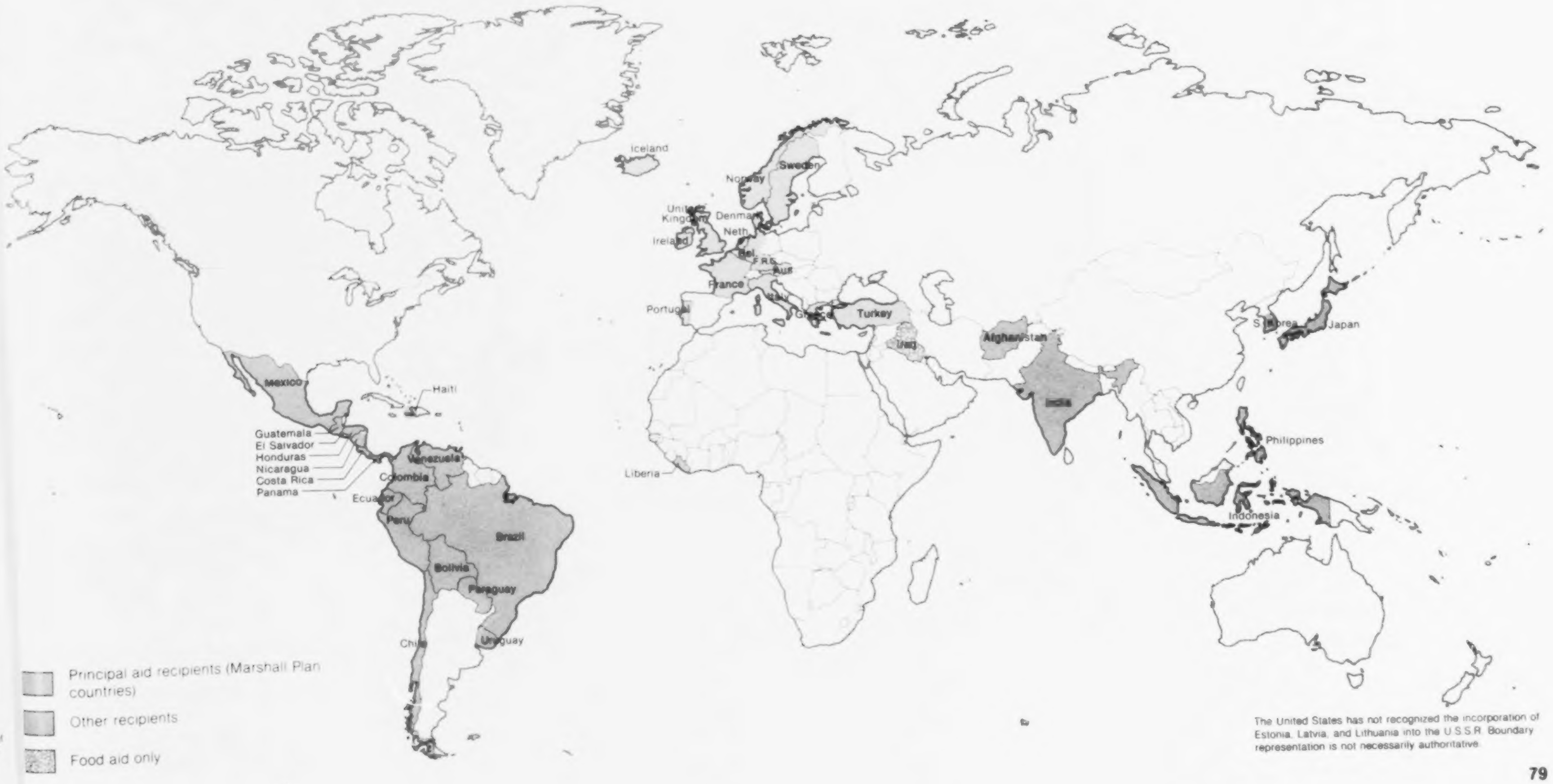
Annual deaths per thousand:

- ▢ 20 and below, 1960
- ▢ 20 and below, 1983
- ■ Above 20, 1983

U.S. Bilateral Economic Aid in 1950

In 1950 the United States was providing economic assistance to nearly 40 countries. The bulk went to European nations taking part in the European Recovery Program (Marshall Plan) initiated in 1947. The Point IV Program of intensified assistance to developing countries was in its infancy. U.S. economic aid in fiscal year 1950 totaled $4.8 billion—2% of U.S. gross national product.

Note: In 1950 most African countries were under colonial rule.


Iceland
Norway
Sweden
United Kingdom
Denmark
Neth.
Ireland
Bel.
F.R.G.
Aus.
France
Portugal
Italy
Greece
Turkey
Iraq
Afghanistan
India
S. Korea
Japan
Philippines
Indonesia
Liberia
Mexico
Haiti
Guatemala
El Salvador
Honduras
Nicaragua
Costa Rica
Panama
Venezuela
Colombia
Ecuador
Peru
Brazil
Bolivia
Paraguay
Chile
Uruguay
Principal aid recipients (Marshall Plan countries)
Other recipients
Food aid only

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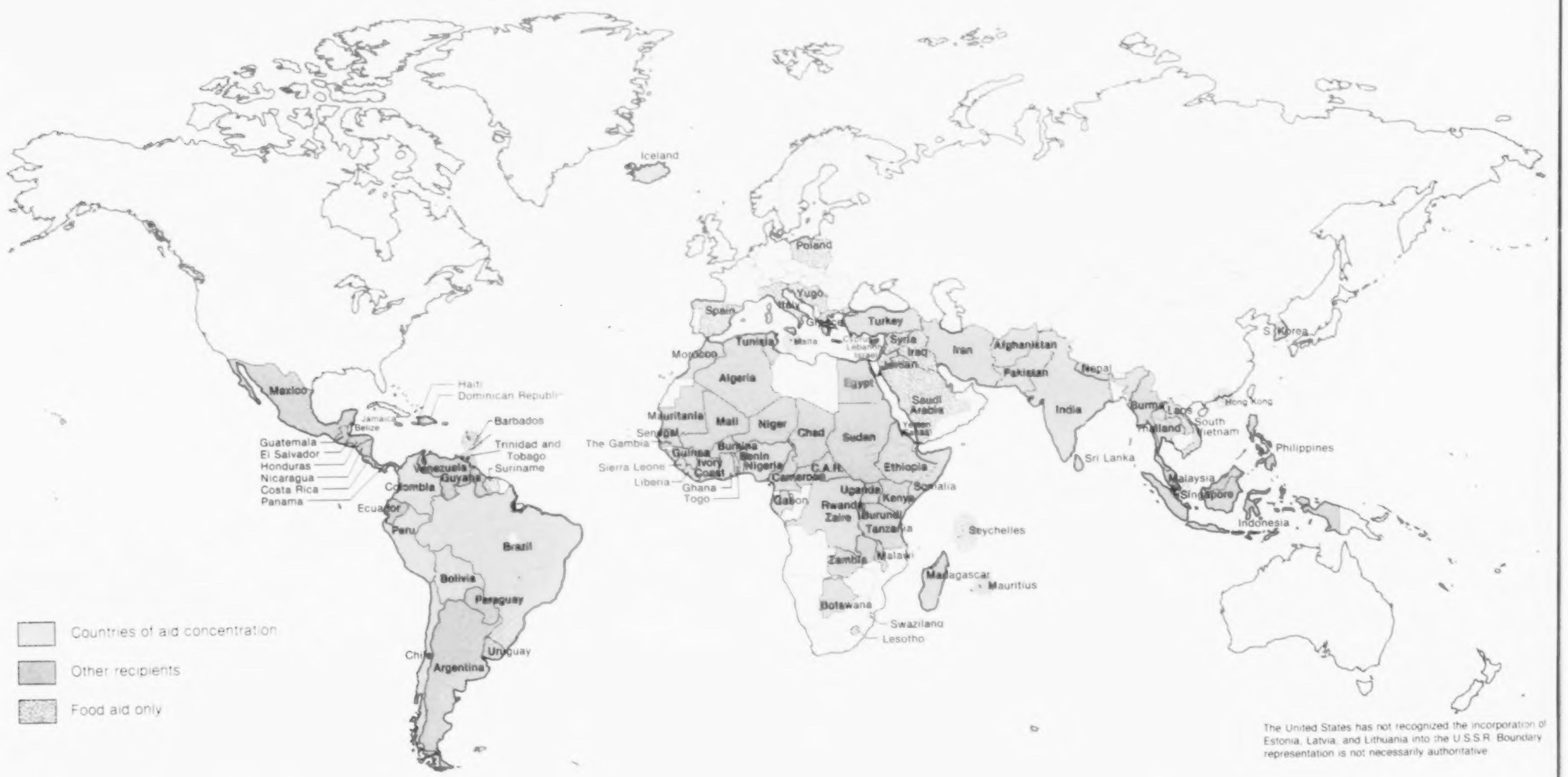
U.S. Bilateral Economic Aid in 1967

In the 1950s U.S. foreign aid began to focus on the developing countries. Because of the Marshall Plan's success in promoting Europe's recovery, industrial growth was emphasized. Public Law 480 (Food for Peace, passed in 1954) authorized low-priced credit sales or outright grants of surplus agricultural commodities. In the 1960s the Alliance for Progress (launched in 1961) gave new prominence to Latin America; the Peace Corps began to provide volunteer manpower to developing countries; and under President Johnson emphasis shifted to agriculture and food, education, and health. In 1967, for greater impact, the United States concentrated its aid effort in just 20 of the 90 countries assisted. U.S. bilateral aid in 1967 totaled $4 billion—0.5% of the gross national product.


Iceland
Poland
Yugo.
Italy
Spain
Greece
Turkey
Malta
Cyprus
Lebanon
Israel
Syria
Iraq
Jordan
Iran
Afghanistan
Pakistan
Nepal
India
Sri Lanka
Morocco
Tunisia
Algeria
Egypt
Saudi Arabia
Yemen
Mauritania
Mali
Niger
Chad
Sudan
Senegal
The Gambia
Guinea
Burkina
Benin
Ivory Coast
Nigeria
Sierra Leone
Liberia
Ghana
Togo
C.A.R.
Ethiopia
Cameroon
Somalia
Gabon
Uganda
Kenya
Rwanda
Burundi
Zaire
Tanzania
Seychelles
Zambia
Malawi
Madagascar
Mauritius
Botswana
Swaziland
Lesotho
S. Korea
Hong Kong
Burma
Laos
Thailand
South Vietnam
Philippines
Malaysia
Singapore
Indonesia
Mexico
Haiti
Dominican Republic
Jamaica
Belize
Barbados
Trinidad and Tobago
Suriname
Guatemala
El Salvador
Honduras
Nicaragua
Costa Rica
Panama
Venezuela
Guyana
Colombia
Ecuador
Peru
Brazil
Bolivia
Paraguay
Chile
Argentina
Uruguay
Countries of aid concentration
Other recipients
Food aid only

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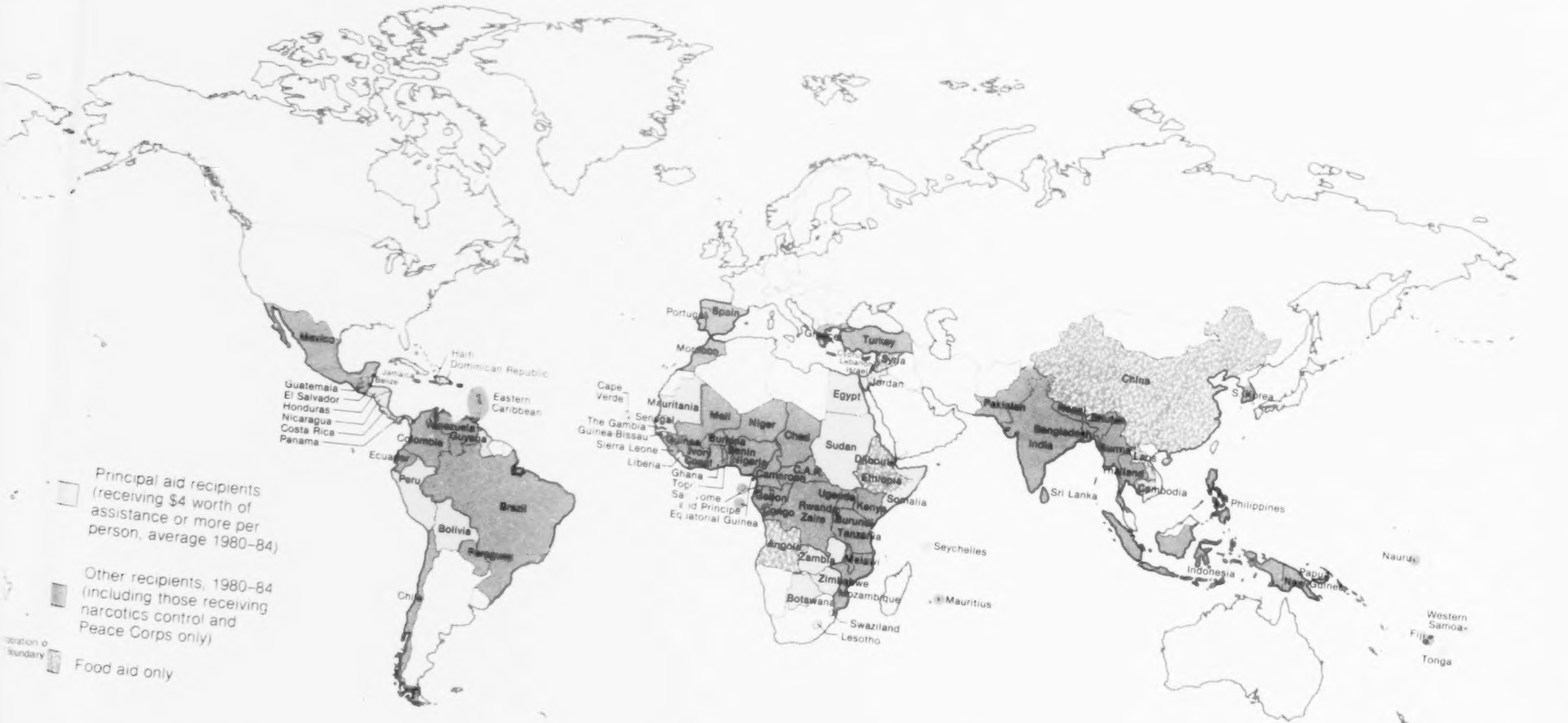
U.S. Bilateral Economic Aid in the 1980s

U.S. bilateral aid in the 1980s continued to reflect the 1973 "new directions" policy of helping the poorest developing countries meet basic needs. There also was renewed emphasis on self-help and private-sector participation.

The Economic Support Fund (ESF) is the aid program providing loans and grants to countries of special security interest. ESF is the source of most of the aid to the largest recipients of U.S. economic assistance—Egypt and Israel. Not including ESF, more than 20% of U.S. economic aid goes to the least developed countries. Economies whose repayments of past development loans exceeded their aid receipts in the 1980s are Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Greece, South Korea, Spain, Taiwan, Uruguay, and Yugoslavia. (The United States has extended no economic assistance to Taiwan since 1964.)

In 1984 U.S. bilateral development assistance totaled $5.4 billion—0.14% of the gross national product.


Principal aid recipients (receiving $4 worth of assistance or more per person, average 1980–84)
Other recipients, 1980–84 (including those receiving narcotics control and Peace Corps only)
Food aid only
Mexico
Guatemala
El Salvador
Honduras
Nicaragua
Costa Rica
Panama
Belize
Jamaica
Haiti
Dominican Republic
Eastern Caribbean
Venezuela
Guyana
Colombia
Ecuador
Peru
Brazil
Bolivia
Paraguay
Chile
Portugal
Spain
Morocco
Greece
Turkey
Cyprus
Lebanon
Israel
Syria
Jordan
Egypt
Cape Verde
Mauritania
Senegal
The Gambia
Guinea-Bissau
Sierra Leone
Liberia
Guinea
Ivory Coast
Ghana
Togo
Mali
Burkina
Benin
Nigeria
Niger
Chad
Sudan
Sao Tome and Principe
Equatorial Guinea
Cameroon
C.A.R.
Djibouti
Ethiopia
Somalia
Gabon
Congo
Uganda
Kenya
Rwanda
Zaire
Burundi
Tanzania
Angola
Zambia
Malawi
Zimbabwe
Botswana
Mozambique
Swaziland
Lesotho
Seychelles
Mauritius
Pakistan
Nepal
Bhutan
Bangladesh
India
Sri Lanka
China
S. Korea
Burma
Laos
Thailand
Cambodia
Philippines
Indonesia
Papua New Guinea
Nauru
Western Samoa
Fiji
Tonga

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U.S. National Security

This section focuses on U.S. collective defense arrangements, the world arms trade, arms control, Soviet military power, and the military balance in strategically and economically vital regions.

American security interests extend to all parts of the globe as a direct consequence of World War II. The destruction of the German and Japanese military regimes, the breakup of the colonial empires, and the universal need for economic assistance thrust the United States into an undeniable position of world leadership. But the war also laid the basis for U.S.-Soviet rivalry. It left the U.S.S.R. the strongest military power in Europe, brought Eastern Europe into the Soviet sphere, and created opportunities for communist subversion in other parts of the globe. The United Nations, created in 1945 at the end of the war as the universal organ of collective security, could not overcome the developing East-West split.

To meet the Soviet threat the United States adopted a policy of mutual defense. With the Greek-Turkish aid act of 1947, the United States inaugurated its program of economic and military assistance to countries threatened by armed minorities or outside pressures. In the Inter-American Treaty of Reciprocal Assistance of 1947, the United States strengthened its bonds with the Western Hemisphere republics. And in the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO), created in 1949, the United States joined Canada and 10 (later 14) West European countries in the world's strongest defensive alliance.

U.S. security policy also includes a continuing effort to control armaments. This effort involves troop numbers and conventional arms, but especially nuclear weapons. In little more than a decade after the United States exploded the first atomic bomb over Japan in 1945, developments in rocketry and other fields had enabled the United States and the U.S.S.R. to create strategic forces equipped with long-range ballistic missiles armed with nuclear warheads. Unable to obtain Soviet agreement to a plan for international control of nuclear energy in 1946, the United States has supported multilateral efforts to prevent proliferation of nuclear arms and has been engaged with the U.S.S.R. in bilateral talks for the purpose of limiting or reducing their strategic armaments.

Global responsibilities required a suitable foreign policy machinery. The chief innovation after World War II was the National Security Council (NSC), created by the National Security Act of 1947. Chaired by the President, with the Vice President and the Secretaries of State and Defense as regular members, the NSC was designed to help the President reach decisions on foreign policy issues which had become increasingly complex and involved the work of many agencies. In 1961 Congress also created the Arms Control and Disarmament Agency to operate under the guidance of the Secretary of State; the United States is the only country that has established a separate agency to deal with international arms control and disarmament.

U.S. Collective Defense Treaties

U.S. global strategy is based in part on a concept of collective security now embodied in four multilateral and three bilateral treaties, all in existence more than 20 years. Signatories are committed to help one another resist armed aggression. Under NATO, obligations extend to members' home territory and to the North Atlantic islands under their jurisdiction north of the Tropic of Cancer. With Australia and New Zealand (ANZUS pact) and with Japan, South Korea, and the Philippines, the commitment is limited to the Pacific.

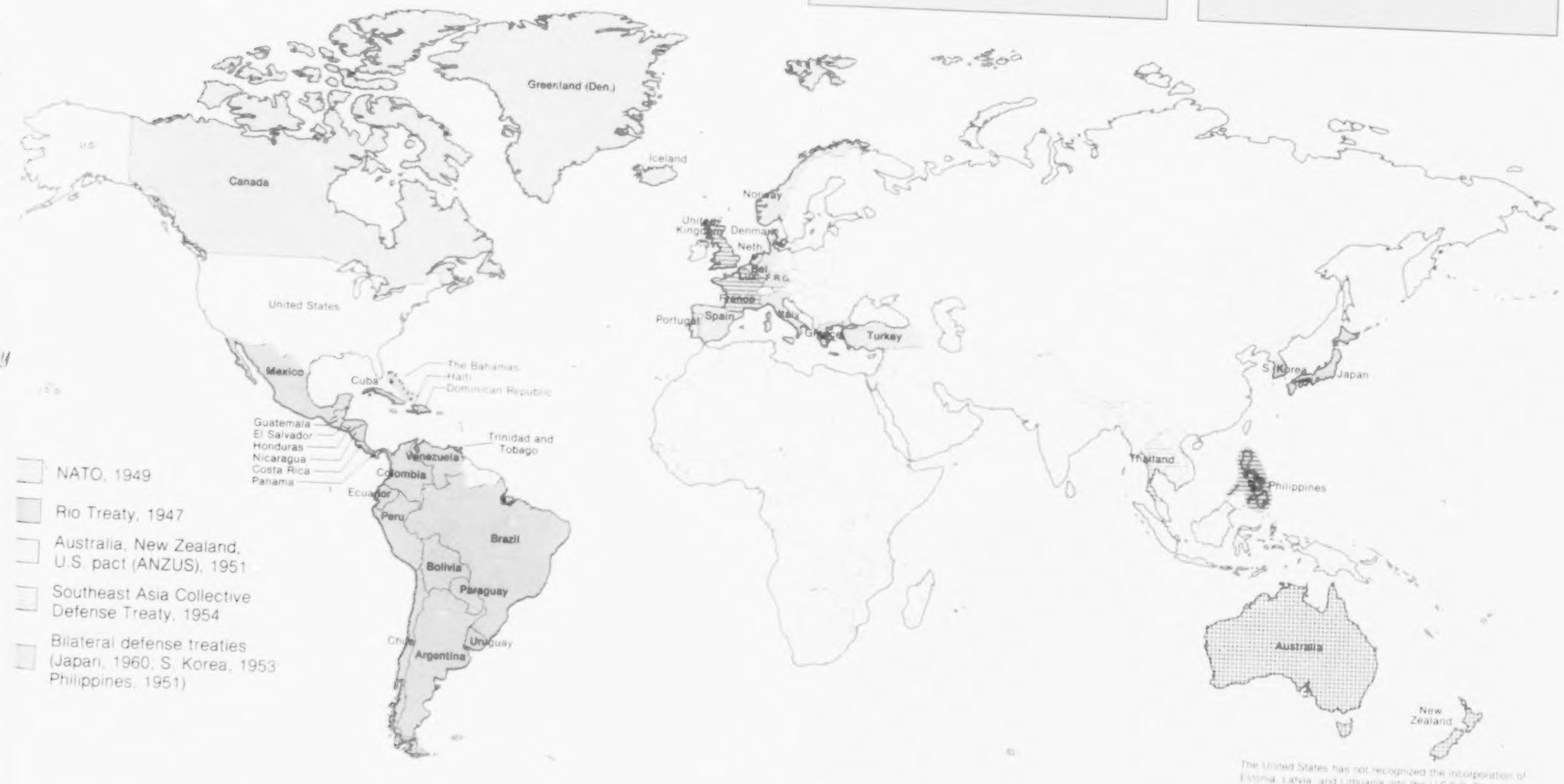
The 1954 Southeast Asia Collective Defense Treaty pledged Australia, France, New Zealand, Pakistan, Philippines, Thailand, United Kingdom, and the United States to resist aggression against the Asian parties and other regional territories the parties might designate. Pakistan withdrew in 1973. The remaining parties disbanded the Southeast Asia Treaty Organization (that is, the permanent machinery established under the treaty) in 1975. But the obligations under the treaty remain in force. France maintains an inactive status.

Members of Inter-American Treaty of Reciprocal Assistance (Rio Treaty)

Argentina
The Bahamas
Bolivia
Brazil
Chile
Colombia
Costa Rica
Cuba (suspended)
Dominican Republic
Ecuador
El Salvador
Guatemala
Haiti
Honduras
Mexico
Nicaragua
Panama
Paraguay
Peru
Trinidad and Tobago
Uruguay
United States
Venezuela

Members of North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO)

Canada
Belgium
Denmark
France
West Germany
Greece
Iceland
Italy
Luxembourg
Netherlands
Norway
Portugal
Spain
Turkey
United Kingdom
United States


Greenland (Den.)
Iceland
U.S.
Canada
United States
Norway
United Kingdom
Denmark
Neth.
Bel.
Lux.
F.R.G.
France
Portugal
Spain
Italy
Greece
Turkey
Mexico
Cuba
The Bahamas
Haiti
Dominican Republic
Guatemala
El Salvador
Honduras
Nicaragua
Costa Rica
Panama
Trinidad and Tobago
Venezuela
Colombia
Ecuador
Peru
Brazil
Bolivia
Paraguay
Chile
Argentina
Uruguay
S. Korea
Japan
Thailand
Philippines
Australia
New Zealand
NATO, 1949
Rio Treaty, 1947
Australia, New Zealand, U.S. pact (ANZUS), 1951
Southeast Asia Collective Defense Treaty, 1954
Bilateral defense treaties (Japan, 1960; S. Korea, 1953; Philippines, 1951)

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U.S. Forces Abroad

Under the treaties of collective defense and the requirements of its own global strategy, the United States deploys certain land, air, and naval forces in foreign countries and outside home waters. Out of a total of about 2 million active-duty personnel in March 1985, about 500,000 were afloat or stationed overseas. Most U.S. forces overseas are in Germany, Japan, and Korea.

U.S. military presence in foreign countries is governed by the mutual defense treaties, with complementary status of forces agreements, and bilateral defense and cooperation treaties. The Guantanamo Naval Base dates from the U.S.-Cuban treaty of 1903, reaffirmed in 1934. The U.S. naval communication station in Australia was established by special agreement in 1963. A 1966 agreement gave the United States access to the British naval facility at Diego Garcia in the Indian Ocean.

U.S. Active Duty Military Personnel Abroad, March 1985

Total for All Locations	503,793
Ashore	447,998
Afloat	55,795
Major Locations Abroad	
Europe	***344,120***
Afloat	20,589
West Germany	249,753
United Kingdom	28,964
Italy	14,653
Spain	9,418
Turkey	5,174
Greece	3,746
Other	11,823
East Asia and Pacific	***122,886***
Afloat	19,197
Japan	46,663
South Korea	41,392
Philippines	14,534
Other	1,100
Western Hemisphere	***21,848***
Afloat	5,[illegible]
Panama	9,774
Guantanamo	2,274
Honduras[1]	1,224
Other	2,880

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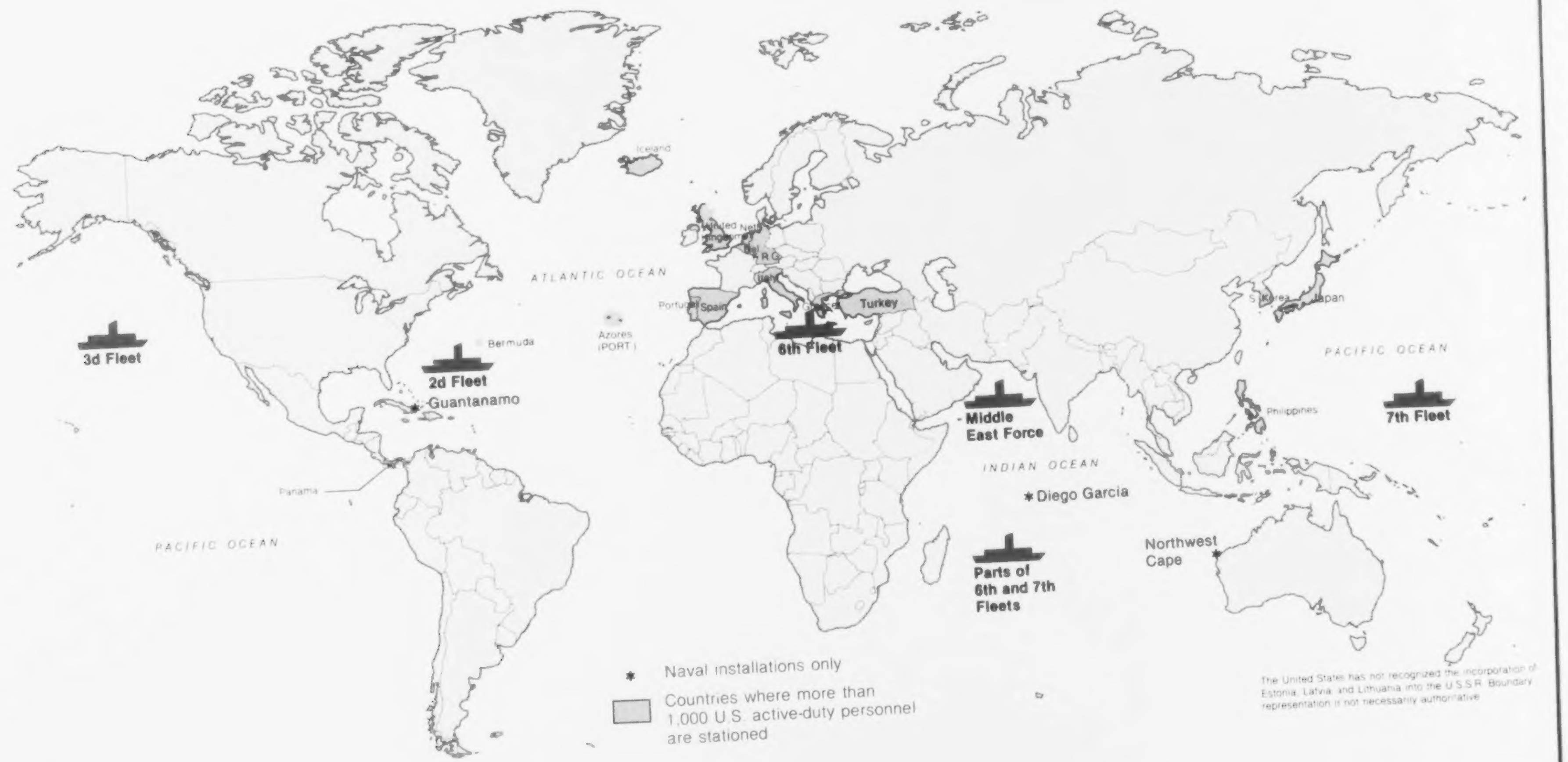
[1] Includes temporary duty personnel for planning and joint exercises.


Iceland
United Kingdom
Neth.
Bel.
F.R.G.
Italy
Portugal
Spain
Greece
Turkey
ATLANTIC OCEAN
Azores (PORT.)
Bermuda
3d Fleet
2d Fleet
Guantanamo
Panama
PACIFIC OCEAN
6th Fleet
Middle East Force
INDIAN OCEAN
Diego Garcia
Parts of 6th and 7th Fleets
Northwest Cape
S. Korea
Japan
Philippines
PACIFIC OCEAN
7th Fleet
* Naval installations only
▨ Countries where more than 1,000 U.S. active-duty personnel are stationed

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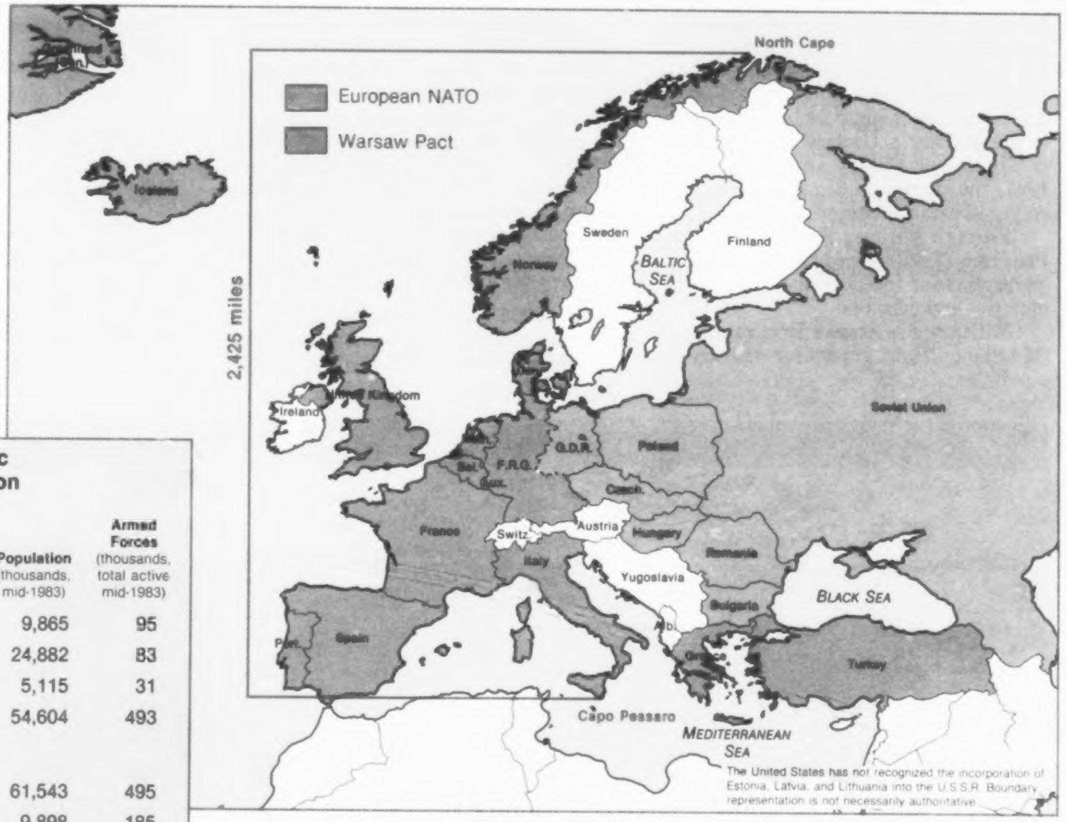
NATO and the Warsaw Pact

The North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) is the principal U.S. mutual defense arrangement. The common forces and integrated commands developed since the treaty was signed in 1949 are limited to Europe and to North Atlantic and Mediterranean waters and are designed to balance Soviet strength embodied since 1955 in the Warsaw Pact.

NATO folllows a policy of deterrence. Its armed forces must be strong enough to discourage aggression and ward off attack. This policy involves the strategy of resisting invasion as far forward as possible and the doctrine of flexible response, calling for the ability to counter all levels of potential aggression. Flexible response requires conventional (non-nuclear) ground, sea, and air forces; short- and intermediate-range nuclear forces in Europe; and (as the ultimate deterrent) the U.S. strategic nuclear force.

NATO is a vehicle for Western efforts to reduce East-West tensions and the level of armaments. A NATO proposal led in 1973 to the negotiations with the Warsaw Pact on mutual and balanced force reductions (MBFR), concerning conventional strength in Central Europe. And in 1979, while deciding to improve its intermediate-range nuclear forces in order to balance Soviet deployment of the SS-20 missile and other armaments, NATO also called for U.S.-Soviet negotiations on intermediate-range nuclear forces to reduce deployment of these weapons on both sides.

In 1985 NATO had 2.6 million military personnel in place in Europe and the Warsaw Pact, 4 million. NATO figures do not include French and Spanish forces. France withdrew from the integrated military commands in 1966, and Spain, joining the alliance in 1982, has never been part of them.



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The North Atlantic Treaty Organization

Members (with year of accession)	**Population** (thousands, mid-1983)	**Armed Forces** (thousands, total active mid-1983)
Belgium (1949)	9,865	95
Canada (1949)	24,882	83
Denmark (1949)	5,115	31
France (1949)	54,604	493
Germany, Federal Republic of (1955)	61,543	495
Greece (1952)	9,898	185
Iceland (1949)	236	no forces
Italy (1949)	56,345	373
Luxembourg (1949)	366	0.7
Netherlands (1949)	14,374	103
Norway (1949)	4,131	43
Portugal (1949)	10,008	64
Spain (1982)	38,234	347
Turkey (1952)	49,115	569
United Kingdom (1949)	56,006	321
United States (1949)	234,193	2,136

Warsaw Pact

Members (with year of accession)	**Population** (thousands, mid-1983)	**Armed Forces** (thousands, mid-1983)
Bulgaria	8,944	162
Czechoslovakia	15,420	205
German Democratic Republic	16,724	167
Hungary	10,691	105
Poland	36,556	340
Romania	22,649	189
U.S.S.R.	272,308	5,050

U.S. Security Assistance, 1950-84

Security assistance is the military and special economic assistance provided by the United States to help other countries maintain their independence and meet defense commitments. Originating in the military portion of the special aid to Greece and Turkey authorized in 1947, the current U.S. program of security assistance comprises chiefly the:

Foreign Military Sales Financing Program (FMS)—credits and loan guaranties for the purchase of U.S. materiel and services;

Military Assistance Program (MAP)—outright grants for military purchases;

International Military Education and Training Program (IMET)—training at U.S. facilities for foreign military personnel (currently from about 90 countries); and

Economic Support Fund (ESF)—grants and loans to bolster the economies of countries of special political or security interest to the United States. Formerly known as security supporting assistance, ESF is administered by the Agency for International Development.

In 1984 security assistance (that is, military aid plus ESF) amounted to a small fraction of 1% of the U.S. Federal budget.

Security Assistance: World Totals and Major Recipients, 1950-84

$ billions, rounded

ESF

World Total: $39 billion

Israel	7
Egypt	7
S. Korea	2
Turkey	2
Jordan	1

FMS

World Total: $36 billion

Israel	16
Egypt	4
S. Korea	2
Greece	2
Spain	2
Turkey	2
Taiwan	1
Iran	1
Jordan	1

IMET

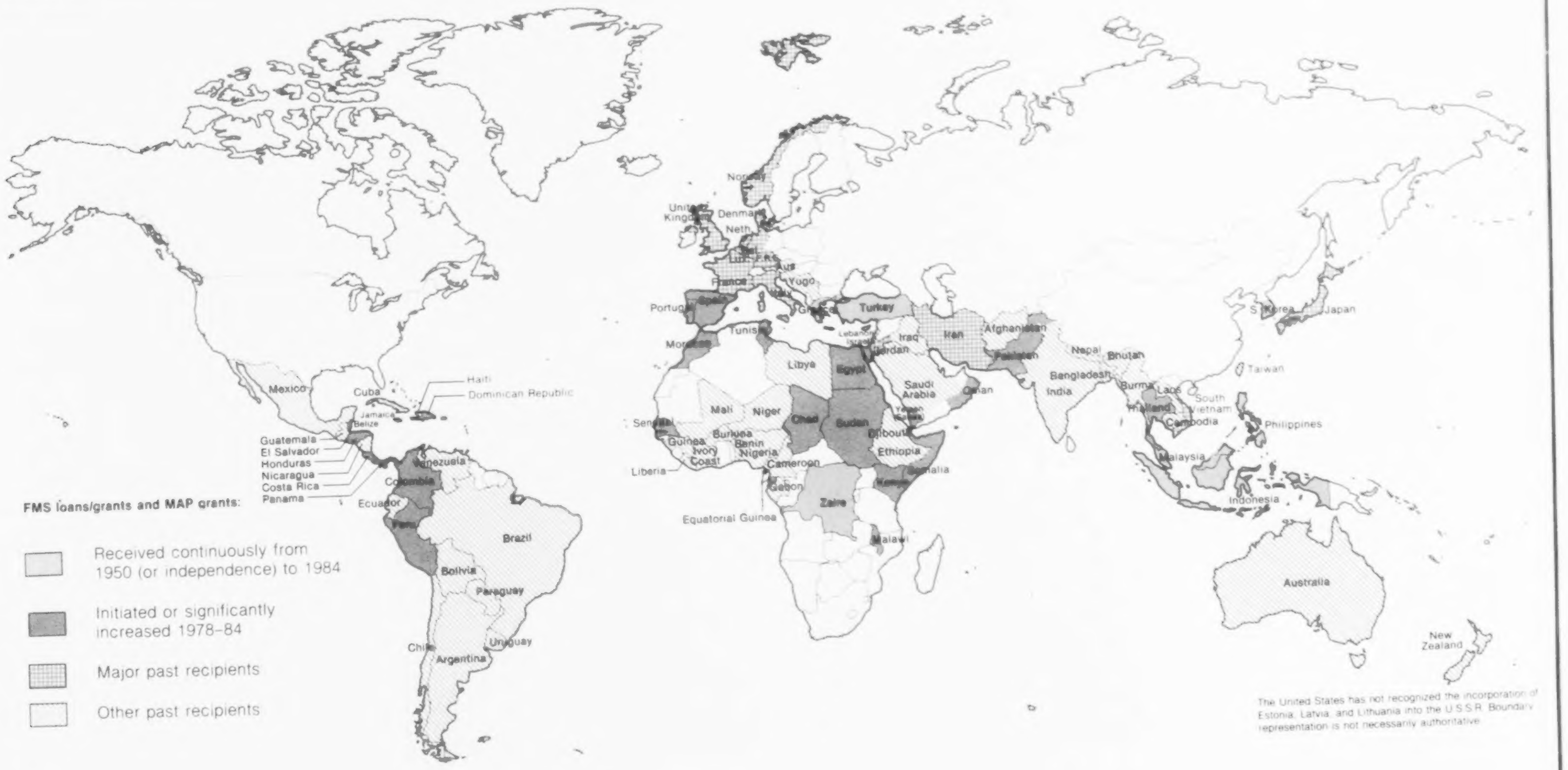
World Total: $2 billion

S. Vietnam	0.3
S. Korea	0.2
Turkey	0.1
France	0.1
Thailand	0.1
Iran	0.1

MAP

World Total: $56 billion

S. Vietnam	15
S. Korea	5
France	4
Turkey	3
Taiwan	3
Italy	2


FMS loans/grants and MAP grants:
Received continuously from 1950 (or independence) to 1984
Initiated or significantly increased 1978-84
Major past recipients
Other past recipients
Mexico
Cuba
Haiti
Dominican Republic
Jamaica
Belize
Guatemala
El Salvador
Honduras
Nicaragua
Costa Rica
Panama
Venezuela
Colombia
Ecuador
Peru
Brazil
Bolivia
Paraguay
Chile
Argentina
Uruguay
Norway
United Kingdom
Denmark
Neth.
Lux.
F.R.G.
Aus.
France
Yugo.
Portugal
Spain
Italy
Greece
Turkey
Tunisia
Morocco
Lebanon
Israel
Iraq
Iran
Jordan
Afghanistan
Pakistan
Nepal
Bhutan
Bangladesh
India
Libya
Egypt
Saudi Arabia
Oman
Yemen
Mali
Niger
Chad
Sudan
Senegal
Burkina
Guinea
Benin
Ivory Coast
Nigeria
Liberia
Cameroon
Gabon
Djibouti
Ethiopia
Somalia
Kenya
Zaire
Equatorial Guinea
Malawi
Burma
Laos
Thailand
South Vietnam
Cambodia
Malaysia
Indonesia
Philippines
S. Korea
Japan
Taiwan
Australia
New Zealand

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U.S.-Soviet Strategic Nuclear Forces

The United States and the U.S.S.R. possess long-range, or strategic, nuclear weapons targeted against one another. These weapons include intercontinental ballistic missiles (ICBMs) launched from home bases; submarine-launched ballistic missiles (SLBMs) fired by vessels cruising under the ocean's surface; and long-range, or heavy, bombers.

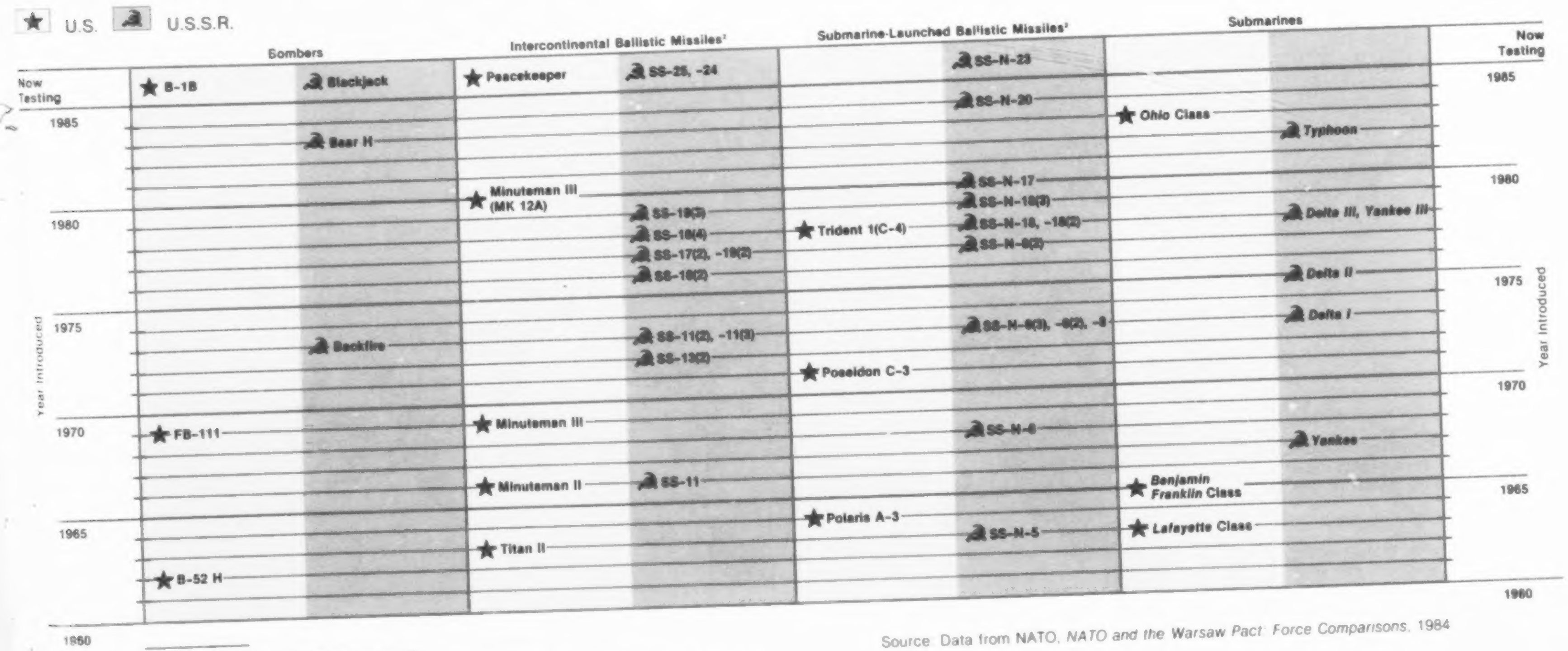
The basic concept of U.S. nuclear arms policy is deterrence. The policy is to maintain a credible nuclear capability so that neither the U.S.S.R. nor any other country can use or threaten to use nuclear weapons against the United States and its allies. The purpose of the Strategic Defense Initiative announced in March 1983 is to assess the effectiveness of new technologies in establishing chiefly non-nuclear defenses against ballistic missiles.

The United States and the U.S.S.R. began the strategic arms limitation talks (SALT) in 1969. The agreements known as SALT I, signed in 1972, prohibited nationwide deployment of antiballistic missile systems and placed interim limitations on ICBM and SLBM launchers. The SALT II agreement, signed in 1979, has not entered into force.

For the round of negotiations on strategic offensive arms begun in 1982, the United States adopted the name strategic arms reduction talks (START), emphasizing that the U.S. objective was to reduce, not merely limit, the nuclear arsenal. In December 1983 the U.S.S.R. refused to set a date for the resumption of START.

The United States and the Soviet Union resumed arms control negotiations in March 1985 in the form of the nuclear and space talks. These talks are composed of three separate areas: strategic offensive forces (START), intermediate-range forces (INF), and defense and space issues. The U.S. objective in the nuclear and space talks is to reduce significantly all offensive nuclear arms and to explore the possibilities of a transition to a more stable relationship based on non-threatening defensive forces.

U.S.-Soviet Strategic Arms: Modernity Compared[1]



Source: Data from NATO, *NATO and the Warsaw Pact: Force Comparisons*, 1984

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[1] Currently operational systems only.

[2] The modification series for Soviet intercontinental and submarine-launched ballistic missiles is shown in parentheses—for example, SS-19(3), SS-N-18(2).

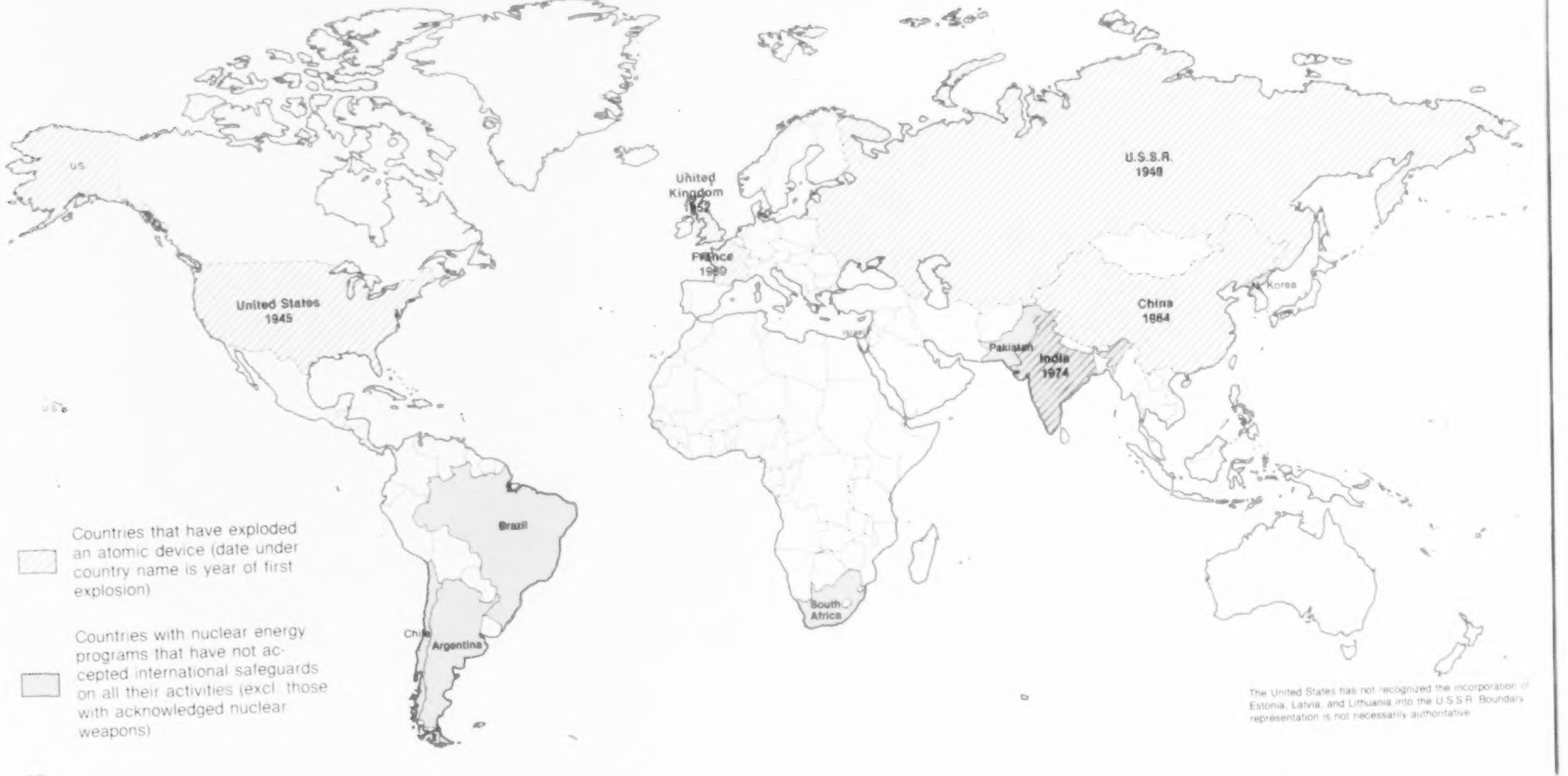
Nuclear Nonproliferation

The Nuclear Nonproliferation Treaty (NPT), concluded in 1968, is the most important international agreement limiting the spread of nuclear arms. As of July 1985, there were more than 125 parties to the treaty. Under its terms, nations party to the treaty that did not possess nuclear weapons when the treaty was concluded may not acquire them in the future. While the treaty affirms the right to develop nuclear energy for peaceful purposes, the non-nuclear-weapons states must accept safeguards applied by the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) on all their peaceful nuclear activities to ensure that nuclear materials are not diverted from peaceful to nuclear explosive uses. Several countries with nuclear energy programs—Argentina, Brazil, Chile, India, Israel, North Korea, Pakistan, South Africa, and Spain—are not parties to the NPT. Spain, however, applies full-scope safeguards. India exploded a nuclear device in 1974.

The U.S. Nuclear Nonproliferation Act of 1978 strengthens controls on U.S. nuclear exports by forbidding sale of nuclear equipment and material to any non-nuclear-weapons country that has not accepted IAEA safeguards on all its nuclear power activities.

Other international agreements limiting deployment of nuclear arms and nuclear explosions are the 1963 Limited Test Ban Treaty and the treaties banning nuclear weapons in the Antarctic (1963), outer space (1967), and the seabed (1971). Nuclear arms were first prohibited in inhabited areas by the 1967 Treaty of Tlatelolco creating a Latin American nuclear-free zone (which includes Puerto Rico, the U.S. Virgin Islands, and the Guantanamo Naval Base).

Active nuclear energy programs outside the industrial democracies, Soviet-bloc countries, and China are found in Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Egypt, India, Iraq, Israel, South Korea, Pakistan, and South Africa.


U.S.
United States
1945
United Kingdom
1952
France
1960
U.S.S.R.
1949
China
1964
N. Korea
Pakistan
India
1974
Brazil
Chile
Argentina
South Africa
Countries that have exploded an atomic device (date under country name is year of first explosion)
Countries with nuclear energy programs that have not accepted international safeguards on all their activities (excl. those with acknowledged nuclear weapons)

The United States has not recognized the incorporation of Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania into the U.S.S.R. Boundary representation is not necessarily authoritative.

Soviet and Soviet-bloc Military Presence Abroad

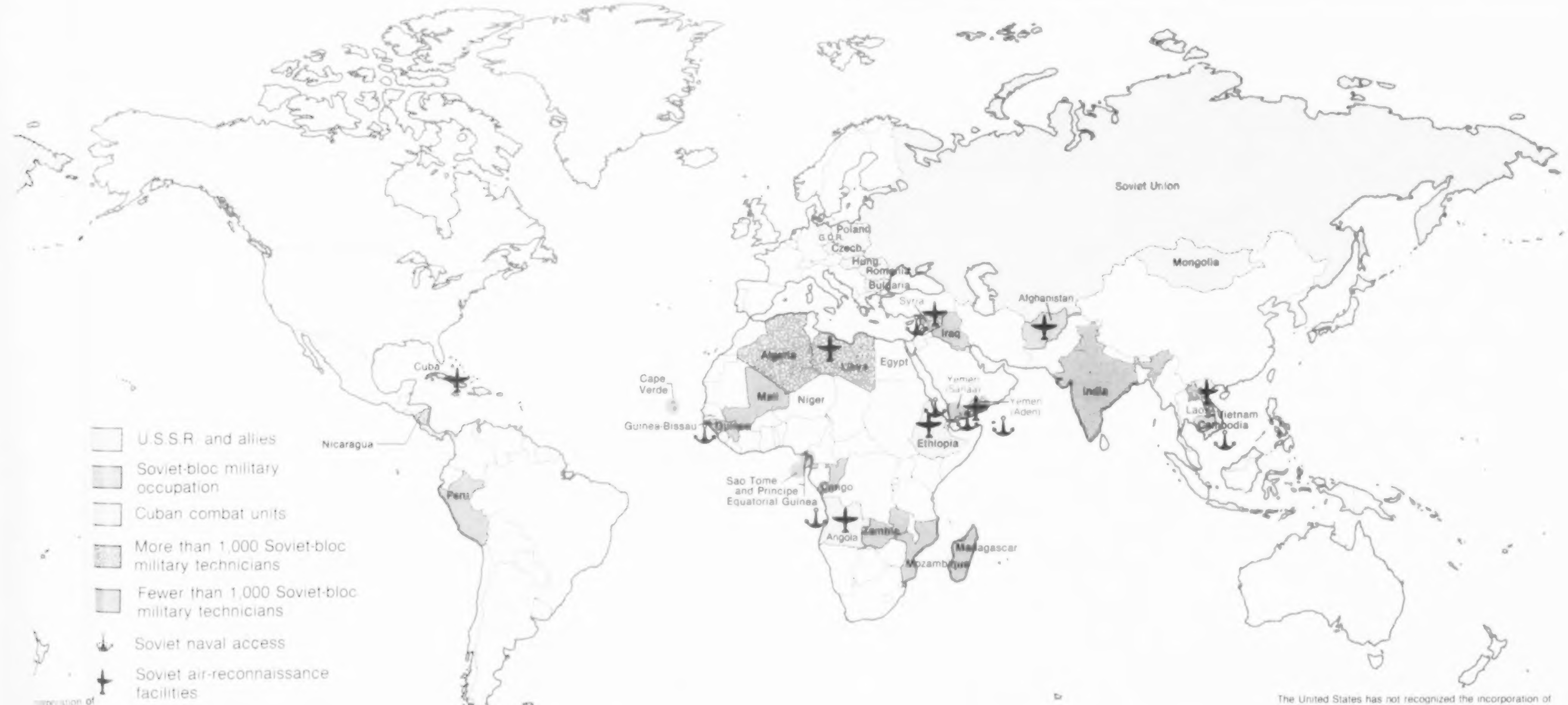
Soviet strategy goes beyond the Warsaw Pact and the nuclear balance with the United States. Through surface fleets operating in distant waters, military sales and assistance involving the dispatch of trainers and technicians, and direct intervention by its own and its allies' troops, the Soviet Union is militarily active in every continent. The bloc's economic aid also produces military advantages. Soviet warplanes en route to Angola in 1975 could use airports in Mali and Guinea, and Soviet warships have use of Soviet-built docking facilities in the Guinean capital. In Angola, Ethiopia, Madagascar, Mozambique, Nicaragua, and Yemen (Aden), Soviet-bloc personnel provide general training for the armed forces and secret police.

Chief Concentrations of Soviet-bloc Military Technicians and Advisers, June 1985

Country	Number	Chief Supplying Country
Afghanistan	2,000	U.S.S.R.
Algeria	1,300	U.S.S.R.
Angola	5,000	Cuba
Ethiopia	2,000	Cuba
Libya	2,000	U.S.S.R.
Nicaragua	3,000	Cuba
Syria	4,000	U.S.S.R.
Yemen (Aden)	1,500	U.S.S.R.

Soviet-bloc Combat Troops Outside Home Areas

Soviet-bloc Presence	Country	Troop Strength, June 1985	Present Since:
U.S.S.R.	Afghanistan	115,000	1979
Cuba	Angola	15-20,000	1975
	Ethiopia	6-7,000	1977
Vietnam	Cambodia	180,000	1978


Soviet Union
Mongolia
Poland
G.D.R.
Czech.
Hung.
Romania
Bulgaria
Syria
Iraq
Afghanistan
Algeria
Libya
Egypt
Cuba
Nicaragua
Peru
Cape Verde
Mali
Niger
Guinea-Bissau
Guinea
Yemen (Sanaa)
Yemen (Aden)
Ethiopia
India
Laos
Vietnam
Cambodia
Sao Tome and Principe
Equatorial Guinea
Congo
Angola
Zambia
Mozambique
Madagascar
U.S.S.R. and allies
Soviet-bloc military occupation
Cuban combat units
More than 1,000 Soviet-bloc military technicians
Fewer than 1,000 Soviet-bloc military technicians
Soviet naval access
Soviet air-reconnaissance facilities

The United States has not recognized the incorporation of Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania into the U.S.S.R. Boundary representation is not necessarily authoritative.

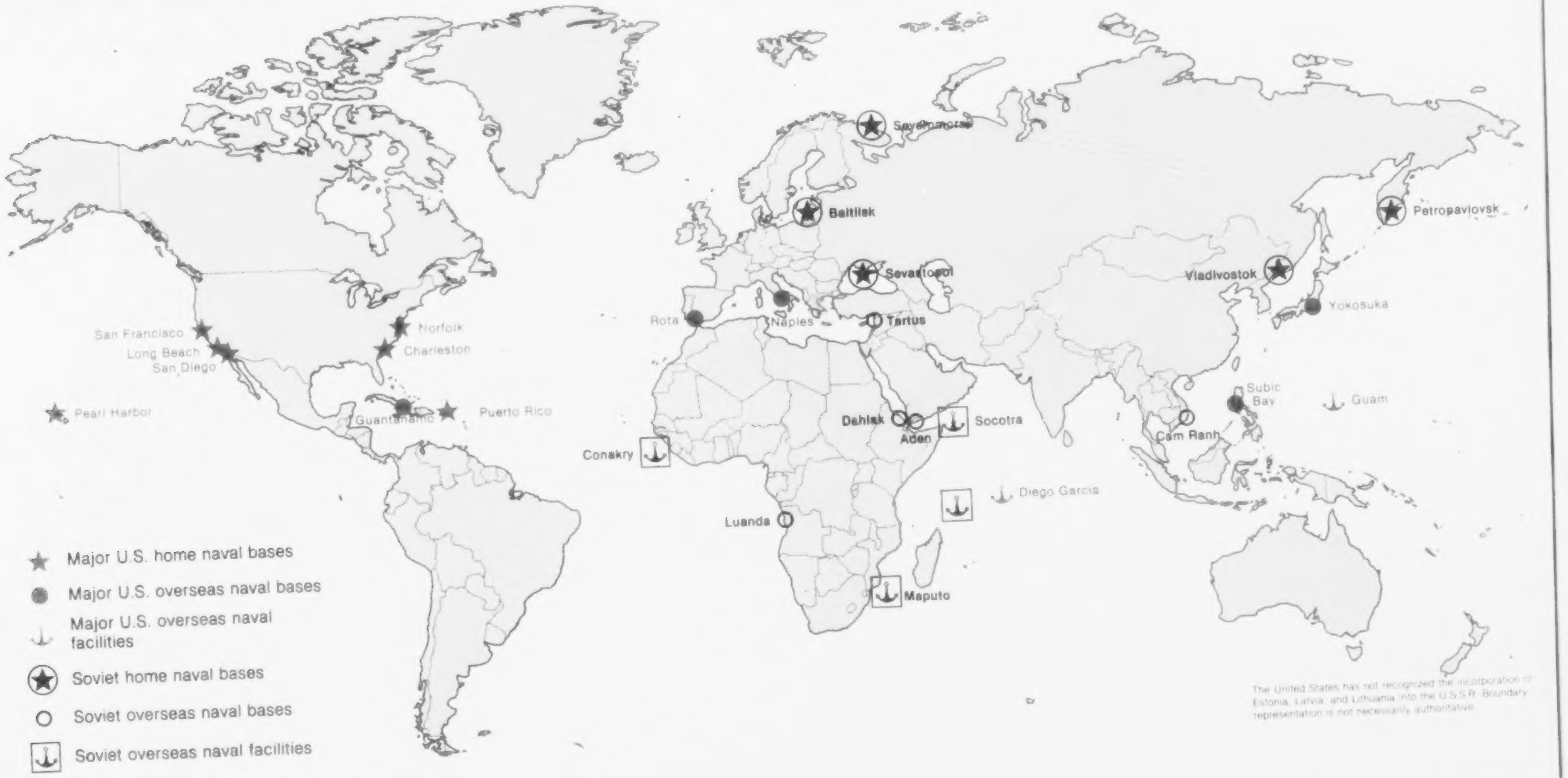
U.S.-Soviet Naval Balance

Navies are effective tools of global strategy. Much more mobile than land forces, warships can be deployed to distant waters to establish a national presence without enlarging formal commitments. The U.S. Navy, with submarines capable of launching intercontinental ballistic missiles, adds flexibility to the U.S. strategic deterrent.

U.S. Navy ships are divided almost equally between Atlantic (which includes the Mediterranean) and Pacific fleets, both of which supply ships for the Indian Ocean. In NATO, the United States contributes to a joint allied naval command. The United States also takes part in combined naval exercises at a variety of levels with many different countries. U.S. naval bases abroad were established under mutual defense arrangements.

The U.S. Navy is now challenged in numbers, quality, and area of operations by the Soviet Navy. The Soviet naval expansion program since World War II has created a large and capable arm comprising surface combatants, submarines (the world's largest number), amphibious ships, carriers for helicopters and vertical- and short-takeoff-and-landing (VSTOL) jet aircraft, and a large oceanographic fleet. With submarines equipped with intercontinental ballistic missiles, the Soviet Navy also is an instrument of nuclear strategy.

Soviet ships were first deployed beyond home waters in 1958 in the Mediterranean, where a Soviet squadron has been present continuously since 1964. The Soviet Indian Ocean squadron dates from 1968. Regular Soviet naval visits to the Caribbean began in 1969, to West Africa in 1970. Soviet warships have been present in Vietnamese waters almost continuously since 1979.


Severomorsk
Baltiisk
Sevastopol
Petropavlovsk
Vladivostok
Yokosuka
Rota
Naples
Tartus
San Francisco
Long Beach
San Diego
Norfolk
Charleston
Pearl Harbor
Guantanamo
Puerto Rico
Subic Bay
Guam
Cam Ranh
Dahlak
Aden
Socotra
Conakry
Diego Garcia
Luanda
Maputo
Major U.S. home naval bases
Major U.S. overseas naval bases
Major U.S. overseas naval facilities
Soviet home naval bases
Soviet overseas naval bases
Soviet overseas naval facilities

The United States has not recognized the incorporation of Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania into the U.S.S.R. Boundary representation is not necessarily authoritative.

Military Sales and Technicians Abroad

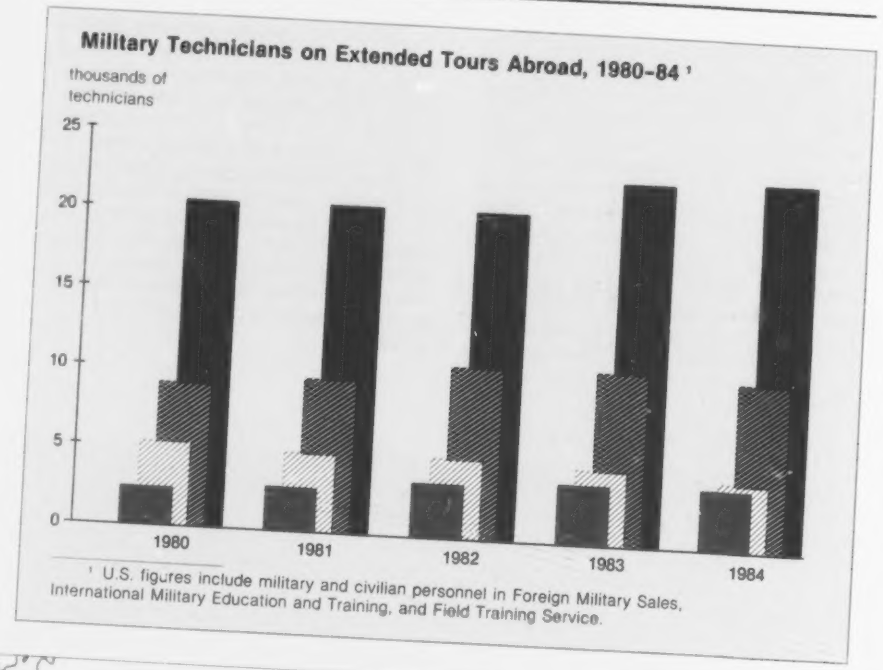
The term "military sales" refers to the transfer of weapons, nonlethal equipment used by armed forces, military construction, and military training. The term "military technicians" includes military trainers and advisers as well as personnel sent to service and provide training in the use of military equipment.

Many Third World countries receive military training and equipment from both NATO countries and the Soviet bloc. The single largest military supplier to the Third World is the Soviet Union, followed by the United States and France. NATO countries provide more arms to the Third World than do Soviet-bloc countries. But the Soviet bloc in the past decade has sent five times as many technicians. Cuba accounts for nearly two-thirds of the technicians supplied by bloc countries other than the Soviet Union. East Germany is the second largest Soviet proxy source of technicians, specializing in intelligence and security.

Some countries outside the industrial democracies and the Soviet bloc—notably Brazil and Israel—have developed substantial arms industries and have become arms exporters. But the only Third World country that is self-sufficient in arms is China.

U.S. military sales abroad are subject to government approval. The government must be satisfied that the proposed transaction will serve the national interest. Chief purchasers of U.S. military items in the 1980s are Saudi Arabia, Egypt, and Israel.

Military Technicians on Extended Tours Abroad, 1980-84 [1]



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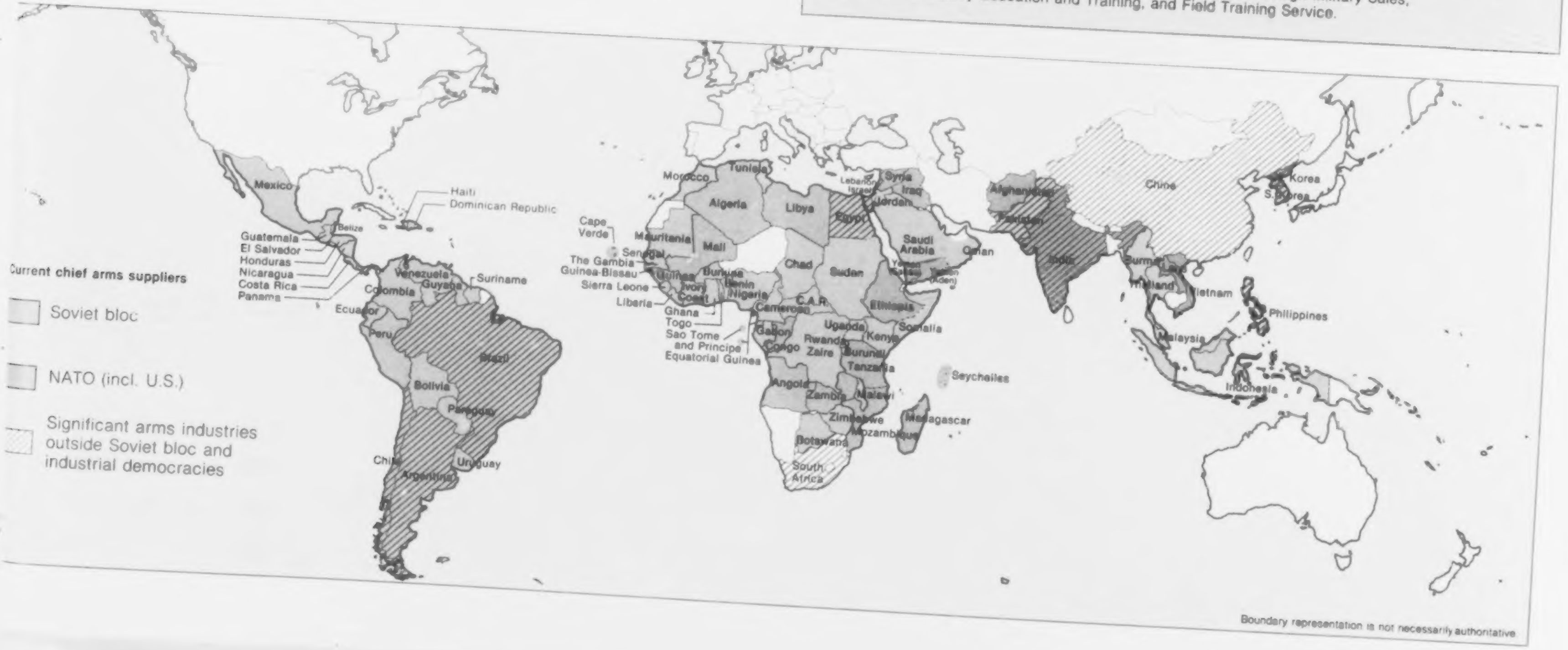
[1] U.S. figures include military and civilian personnel in Foreign Military Sales, International Military Education and Training, and Field Training Service.

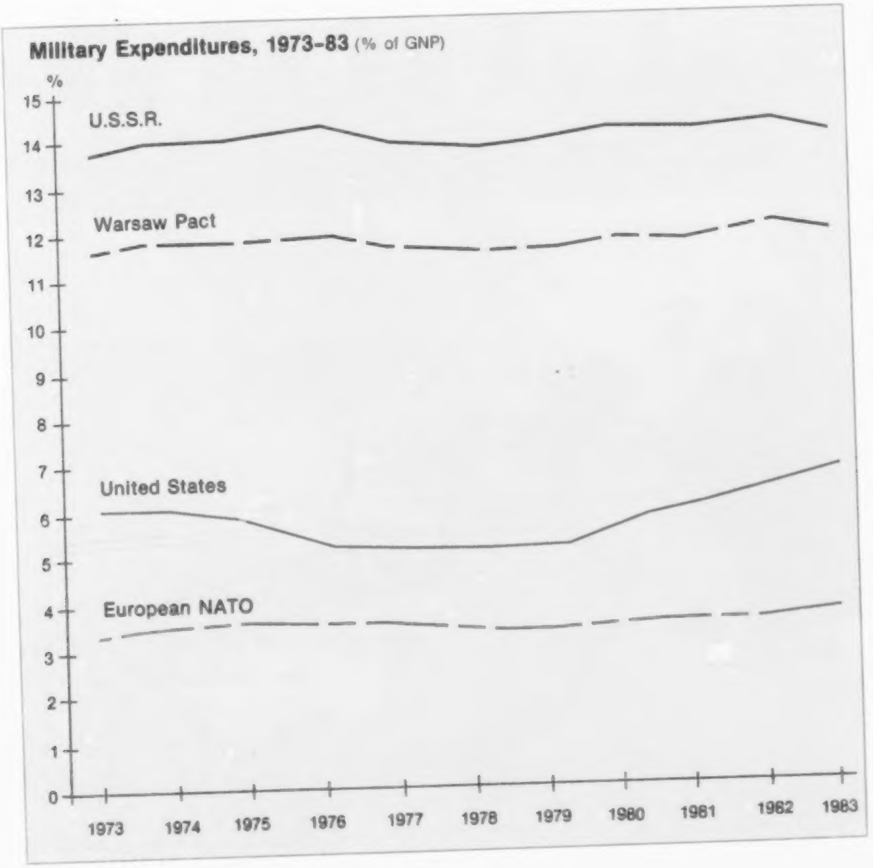

Current chief arms suppliers
Soviet bloc
NATO (incl. U.S.)
Significant arms industries outside Soviet bloc and industrial democracies
Mexico
Haiti
Dominican Republic
Belize
Guatemala
El Salvador
Honduras
Nicaragua
Costa Rica
Panama
Venezuela
Guyana
Suriname
Colombia
Ecuador
Peru
Brazil
Bolivia
Paraguay
Chile
Argentina
Uruguay
Cape Verde
Senegal
The Gambia
Guinea-Bissau
Sierra Leone
Liberia
Guinea
Ivory Coast
Ghana
Togo
Sao Tome and Principe
Equatorial Guinea
Morocco
Tunisia
Algeria
Libya
Egypt
Mauritania
Mali
Burkina
Benin
Nigeria
Chad
Sudan
C.A.R.
Cameroon
Ethiopia
Somalia
Gabon
Congo
Uganda
Kenya
Rwanda
Zaire
Burundi
Tanzania
Angola
Zambia
Malawi
Zimbabwe
Mozambique
Botswana
South Africa
Madagascar
Seychelles
Lebanon
Israel
Syria
Iraq
Jordan
Saudi Arabia
Yemen
Yemen (Aden)
Oman
Afghanistan
Pakistan
India
China
Korea
S. Korea
Burma
Laos
Thailand
Vietnam
Philippines
Malaysia
Indonesia

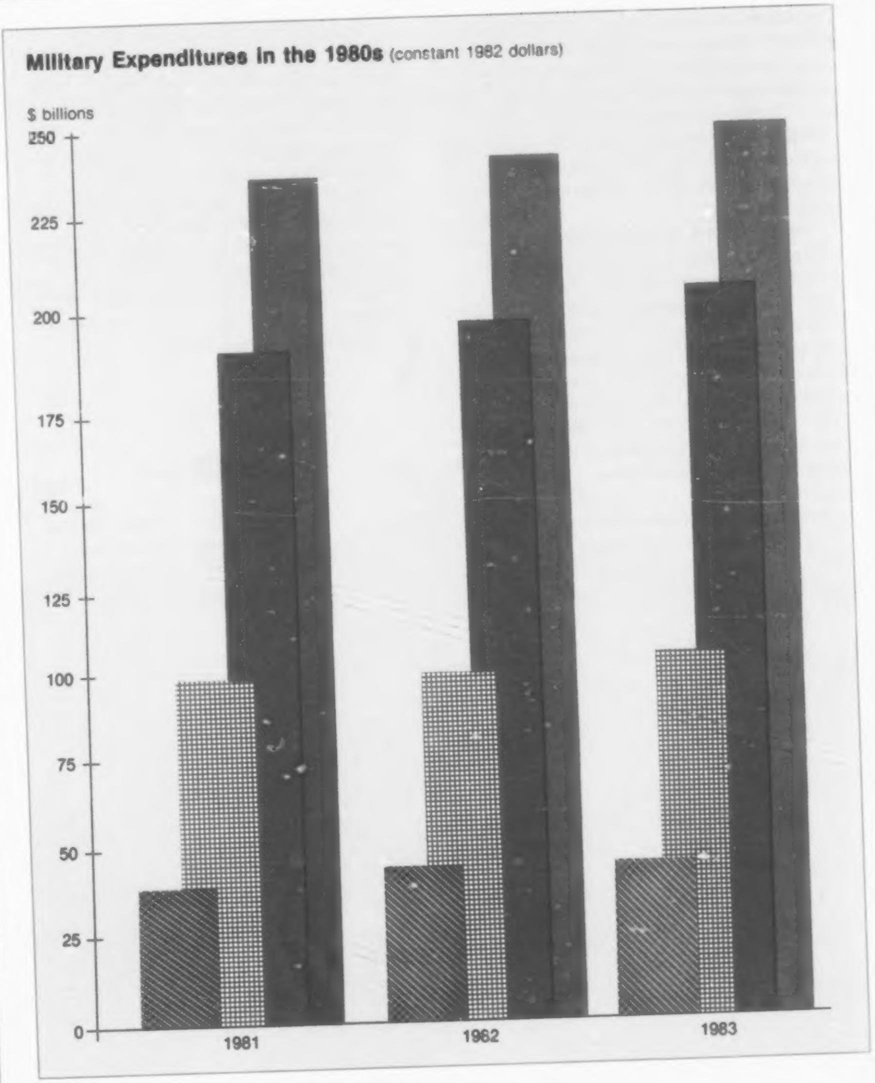
Boundary representation is not necessarily authoritative.

East-West Military Expenditures

The ratio of military expenditures to the GNP is an indication of the military burden on the national economy. In the 1970s world GNP rose faster than military expenditures (indicating that a smaller share of total resources was being devoted to military purposes), but during the recession of the early 1980s the ratio of military expenditures increased. The military share of the GNP is lower for developed market economies as a whole than for the Third World and the Soviet bloc (Warsaw Pact countries plus Cuba, Nicaragua, and Vietnam).

NATO follows the principle, known as burdensharing, that each country must do its part and assume a fair share of the costs of common defense. Besides the member's military budget, NATO considers its economic needs and resources and nonmilitary contributions to Western security such as foreign aid. In 1978, in response to the military buildup in Eastern Europe, NATO agreed that each member should attempt to increase its defense spending by 3% annually, a goal reaffirmed in 1985.


Military Expenditures, 1973–83 (% of GNP)


Military Expenditures in the 1980s (constant 1982 dollars)

Source for graphs: ACDA, *World Military Expenditures and Arms Transfers, 1973–1983,* 1985

▩ Warsaw Pact (excl. U.S.S.R.)

▦ NATO (excl. United States)

■ United States

■ U.S.S.R

Military Balance in the Persian Gulf

The region of the Persian Gulf (here including Libya) has more than 60% of the world's proven oil reserves and in 1984 supplied 39% of the crude oil imported by North America, Western Europe, and Japan. Hence the importance to the United States of equal access to the region's oil and of secure tanker routes to the Atlantic and the Pacific.

The United States, France, and the U.S.S.R. have a continuous naval presence in the region. (The United Kingdom since 1970 has maintained only token naval forces.) France has about 20 ships at Djibouti and the island of Reunion (not shown on map). The United States established its Middle East Force, based on Bahrain, in 1949 and obtained access to British facilities at Diego Garcia in 1966.

Soviet warships have been present in the Indian Ocean continuously since 1968. Somalia in 1977 revoked Soviet air and naval rights granted in 1974. But Ethiopia and Yemen (Aden) have since given the U.S.S.R. access to air and naval facilities at the approaches to the Red Sea.

The U.S.S.R. also has a continuous naval presence in the Mediterranean with access to Syrian ports. The U.S. Sixth Fleet is assigned to the Mediterranean.

Population and Armed Forces[1]
(thousands of persons, mid-year 1984)

	Population	Armed Forces
Bahrain	400	3
Egypt	47,000	440
Ethiopia	32,000	306
Iran	44,000	575
Iraq	15,000	810
Israel	4,000	195
Jordan	3,000	80
Kuwait	2,000	17
Lebanon	3,000	—
Libya	4,000	91
Oman	1,000	20
Qatar	300	6
Saudi Arabia	11,000	52
Somalia	6,000	63
Sudan	21,000	58
Syria	10,000	400
United Arab Emirates	1,000	45
Yemen (Aden)	2,000	28
Yemen (Sanaa)	6,000	37
Other Regional:		
Afghanistan	14,000	46
Kenya	19,000	14
Pakistan	97,000	480

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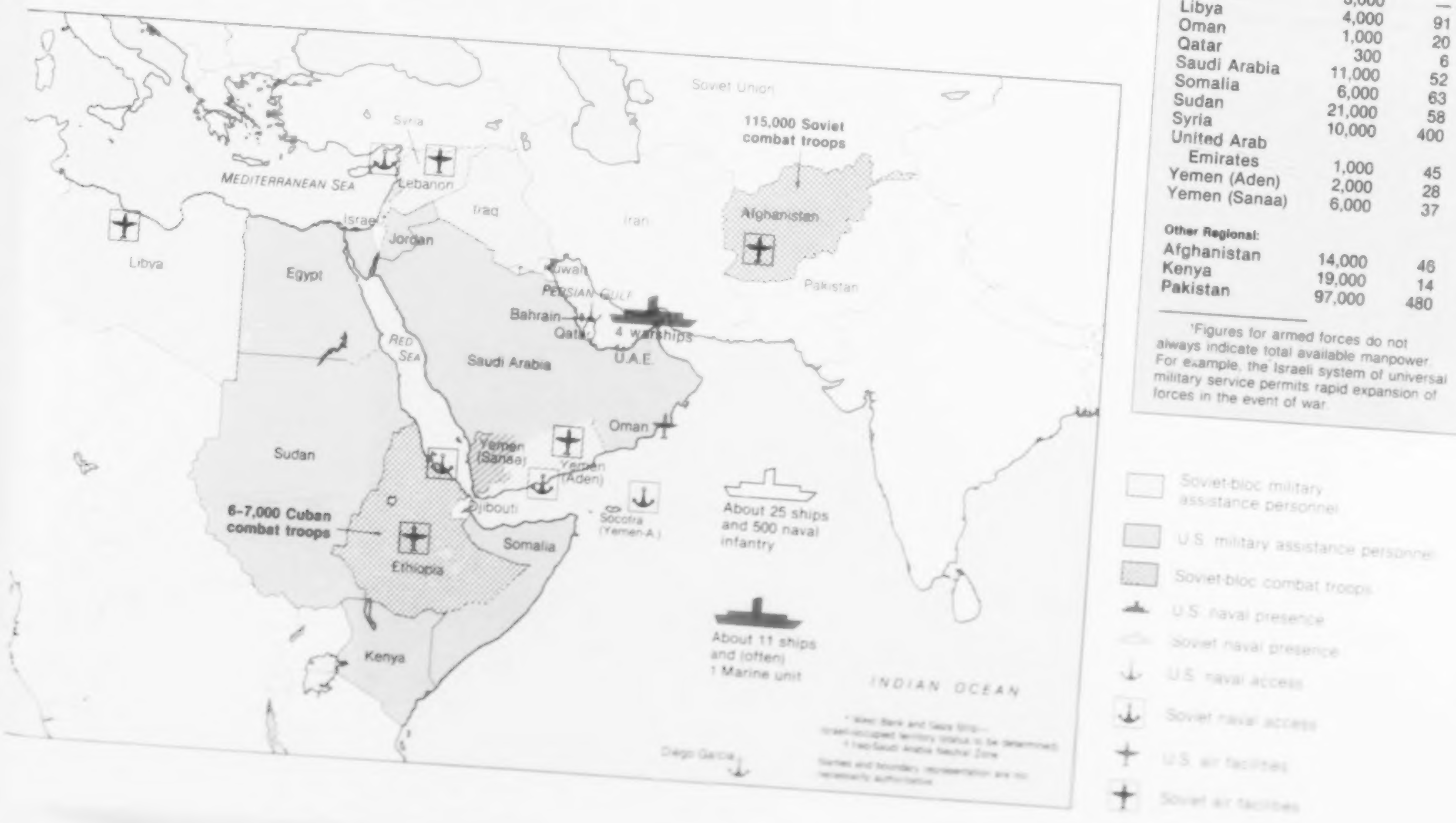
[1] Figures for armed forces do not always indicate total available manpower. For example, the Israeli system of universal military service permits rapid expansion of forces in the event of war.


Soviet Union
115,000 Soviet combat troops
Syria
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
Lebanon
Iraq
Iran
Afghanistan
Israel
Jordan
Libya
Egypt
Kuwait
PERSIAN GULF
Pakistan
Bahrain
Qatar
4 warships
U.A.E.
RED SEA
Saudi Arabia
Oman
Sudan
Yemen (Sanaa)
Yemen (Aden)
Djibouti
Socotra (Yemen-A.)
6-7,000 Cuban combat troops
Ethiopia
Somalia
About 25 ships and 500 naval infantry
About 11 ships and (often) 1 Marine unit
Kenya
INDIAN OCEAN
Diego Garcia
Soviet-bloc military assistance personnel
U.S. military assistance personnel
Soviet-bloc combat troops
U.S. naval presence
Soviet naval presence
U.S. naval access
Soviet naval access
U.S. air facilities
Soviet air facilities

¹ West Bank and Gaza Strip—Israeli-occupied territory status to be determined.
² Iraq-Saudi Arabia Neutral Zone.
Names and boundary representation are not necessarily authoritative.

Military Balance in the Caribbean Basin

Caribbean Basin countries have the world's smallest armed forces relative to their size. The exceptions are the militarized countries of Cuba and Nicaragua.

Cuba has the largest armed forces in the Western Hemisphere after the United States. With 160,000 active-duty personnel and 130,000 well-trained reservists, Cuba's total armed force is larger than the active-duty armed force of Brazil. Cuba's military expenditures, as a percentage of gross national product, are 10 times larger than Mexico's. With equipment of recent Soviet design, Cuba is capable of swift intervention anywhere in the Caribbean Basin.

Nicaragua is creating a military establishment similar to Cuba's. With forces totaling over 119,000 (including regular army, reserve, militia, and security units), equipped with advanced Soviet arms, Nicaragua alone can match the military strength of all other Central American countries combined.

Had the communist government of Grenada carried out its military expansion plans, it would have created the world's largest armed force relative to population.

Soviet-bloc Military Presence[1]

	Country	Number
Soviet combat troops	Cuba	2,800
Soviet and East European military/security advisers and technicians	Cuba Nicaragua	4,900 150
Cuban military advisers	Nicaragua	3,000

[1] Excludes civilian advisers in Cuba (6,000–8,000 Soviets) and Nicaragua (350 Soviets and East Europeans and 3,500 Cubans).

Population and Armed Forces[1]

Caribbean Basin:	Population (thousands)	Armed Forces (thousands)	Number of Jet Fighters
Cuba	9,900	290[2]	235
Dominican Republic	6,400	23	0
El Salvador	4,900	41	0
Guatemala	8,000	40	0
Haiti	5,600	8	0
Honduras	4,200	18	16
Jamaica	2,400	9	0
Nicaragua	2,900	62[3]	0
Panama	2,000	14.5	0
Other Regional:			
Colombia	29,000	70	16
Mexico	77,600	120	22
Venezuela	17,800	44	42

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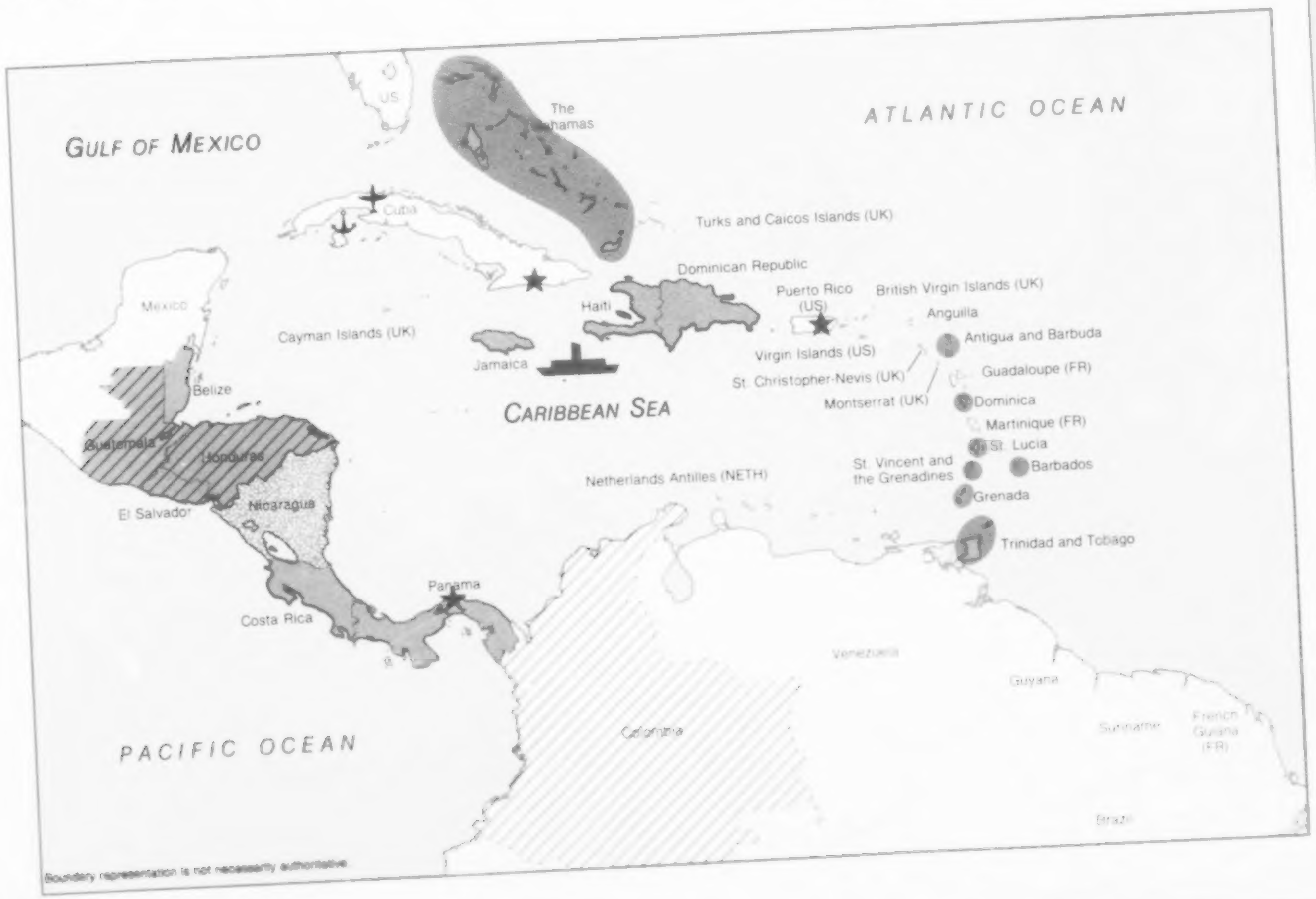
[1] Countries not included in table have insignificant or no armed forces.

[2] Includes ready reserve.

[3] Active duty.


GULF OF MEXICO
ATLANTIC OCEAN
US
The Bahamas
Cuba
Turks and Caicos Islands (UK)
Dominican Republic
Mexico
Cayman Islands (UK)
Haiti
Puerto Rico (US)
British Virgin Islands (UK)
Anguilla
Antigua and Barbuda
Virgin Islands (US)
St. Christopher-Nevis (UK)
Guadaloupe (FR)
Jamaica
Belize
Montserrat (UK)
Dominica
CARIBBEAN SEA
Martinique (FR)
St. Lucia
Guatemala
Honduras
St. Vincent and the Grenadines
Barbados
Netherlands Antilles (NETH)
Grenada
El Salvador
Nicaragua
Trinidad and Tobago
Panama
Costa Rica
Venezuela
Guyana
PACIFIC OCEAN
Colombia
Suriname
French Guiana (FR)
Brazil
Boundary representation is not necessarily authoritative
Airfields for Soviet-bloc use
Soviet naval access
Cuban-supported insurgencies
Cuban/Soviet-bloc military and internal security assistance
U.S. bases
U.S. permanent naval presence
U.S. military assistance (including international military education and training program)

Milestones of U.S. National Security Policy Since World War II

1945
United Nations established to promote international economic progress and maintain peace and security.

1947
Truman Doctrine asserted U.S. policy of containing Soviet expansion through economic and military aid to threatened countries.

National Security Act created the National Military Establishment and the National Security Council headed by the President with the Vice President and Secretaries of State and Defense as permanent members.

Inter-American Treaty of Reciprocal Assistance committed United States and Latin American republics to common defense against aggression in Western Hemisphere.

1949
North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) joined the United States, Canada, and 10 (later 14) European countries in an alliance for common defense of Western Europe and North America.

Mutual Defense Assistance Act unified U.S. military aid programs and inaugurated military aid to North Atlantic partners.

1950
Uniting for Peace Resolution adopted by the UN General Assembly furnished basis for common action against aggression in Korea.

1951
U.S. security and mutual defense treaties for Pacific areas with Australia and New Zealand (ANZUS pact), Philippines, and Japan (superseded in 1960).

Mutual Defense Assistance Control Act (Battle Act)—new basis for efforts to prevent strategic goods export to Soviet bloc.

1953
Korean armistice established cease-fire line close to 38th parallel dividing North and South Korea.

U.S. mutual defense treaty with Republic of Korea.

1954
Southeast Asia Collective Defense Treaty (United States, Australia, France, New Zealand, Pakistan, Philippines, Thailand, United Kingdom) provided collective defense for treaty's Asian members and for protocol states (i.e., any regional territories members might designate).

1957
Eisenhower Doctrine: Congress authorized President to use armed forces to help countries of Middle East resist communist aggression.

1958
U.S. pledge to Central Treaty Organization (Iran, Pakistan, Turkey, and United Kingdom) to cooperate in their mutual defense effort.

1959
Antarctic Treaty pledged the United States and 14 other signatories to use Antarctic region for peaceful purposes only.

1961
U.S. Arms Control and Disarmament Agency established under Secretary of State to formulate arms control policy and manage participation in disarmament talks.

1962
Organization of American States declared that Cuba, through association with nonhemispheric communist powers, had placed itself outside inter-American system.

Under threat of U.S. interdiction, U.S.S.R. withdrew offensive weapons being installed in Cuba.

1963
Washington-Moscow direct communication link ("Hot Line") established.

Limited Nuclear Test Ban Treaty banned explosions in the atmosphere, in outer space, and underwater.

1964
Tonkin Gulf Resolution (repealed 1970). Congress authorized President to take all necessary steps to help any member or protocol state of Southeast Asia Collective Defense Treaty requesting assistance in defense of its freedom—basis for intensified military support of South Vietnam.

1965
House resolution declared that communist intervention in Western Hemisphere violated Monroe Doctrine and principles of hemispheric solidarity.

1968
Nonproliferation Treaty, acceded to by more than 125 governments as of July 1985, banned spread of atomic weapons.

1969
Nixon Doctrine reaffirmed U.S. commitment to economic and military assistance while calling for "more responsible participation of our foreign friends in their own defense and progress."

1972
Strategic arms limitation talks (SALT) agreements with U.S.S.R. set limitations on defensive and offensive nuclear weapons and established strategic arms negotiations as continuing process.

1973
Paris agreement provided for withdrawal of U.S. troops from Vietnam.

1975
Helsinki Final Act of Conference on Security and Cooperation in Europe enjoined United States, Canada, and 33 East and West European countries to respect state sovereignty and civil rights and enlarge East-West contacts.

1979
Israel-Egypt Peace Treaty, facilitated by U.S. Middle East consultations in 1974–75, ended 30 years of conflict between the two countries, and provided possible framework for comprehensive peace in Middle East.

Appendix

Embassies

Afghanistan *(Kabul)*
Algeria *(Algiers)*
Antigua and Barbuda *(St. Johns)* (ambassador resident in Bridgetown, Barbados)
Argentina *(Buenos Aires)*
Australia *(Canberra)*
Austria *(Vienna)*
The Bahamas *(Nassau)*
Bahrain *(Manama)*
Bangladesh *(Dhaka)*
Barbados *(Bridgetown)*
Belgium *(Brussels)*
Belize *(Belize City)*
Benin *(Cotonou)*
Bermuda *(Hamilton)*
Bolivia *(La Paz)*
Botswana *(Gabarone)*
Brazil *(Brasilia)*
Brunei *(Bandar Seri Begawan)*
Bulgaria *(Sofia)*
Burkina *(Ouagadougou)*
Burma *(Rangoon)*
Burundi *(Bujumbura)*
Cameroon *(Yaounde)*
Canada *(Ottawa)*
Cape Verde *(Praia)*
Central African Republic *(Bangui)*
Chad *(N'djamena)*
Chile *(Santiago)*
China *(Beijing)*
Columbia *(Bogota)*
Comoros*
Congo *(Brazzaville)*
Costa Rica *(San José)*
Cyprus *(Nicosia)*
Czechoslovakia *(Prague)*
Denmark *(Copenhagen)*
Djibouti *(Djibouti)*
Dominica*
Dominican Republic *(Santo Domingo)*
Ecuador *(Quito)*
Egypt *(Cairo)*
El Salvador *(San Salvador)*
Equatorial Guinea *(Malabo)*
Ethiopia *(Addis Ababa)*
Fiji *(Suva)*
Finland *(Helsinki)*
France *(Paris)*
Gabon *(Libreville)*
The Gambia *(Banjul)*
German Democratic Republic *(Berlin)*
Germany, Federal Republic of *(Bonn)*
Ghana *(Accra)*
Greece *(Athens)*
Grenada *(St. George's)*
Guatemala *(Guatemala City)*
Guinea *(Conakry)*
Guinea-Bissau *(Bissau)*
Guyana *(Georgetown)*
Haiti *(Port-au-Prince)*
The Holy See *(Vatican City)*
Honduras *(Tegucigalpa)*
Hungary *(Budapest)*
Iceland *(Reykjavik)*
India *(New Delhi)*
Indonesia *(Jakarta)*
Iraq *(Baghdad)*
Ireland *(Dublin)*
Israel *(Tel Aviv)*
Italy *(Rome)*
Ivory Coast *(Abidjan)*
Jamaica *(Kingston)*
Japan *(Tokyo)*
Jordan *(Amman)*
Kenya *(Nairobi)*
Kiribati*
South Korea *(Seoul)*
Kuwait *(Kuwait)*
Laos *(Vientiane)*
Lebanon *(Beirut)*
Lesotho *(Maseru)*
Liberia *(Monrovia)*
Libya *(Tripoli)* (On May 2, 1980, all Embassy activities were suspended and all American personnel were withdrawn from the Embassy.)
Luxembourg *(Luxembourg)*
Madagascar *(Antananarivo)*
Malawi *(Lilongwe)*
Malaysia *(Kuala Lumpur)*
Maldives*
Mali *(Bamako)*
Malta *(Valletta)*
Mauritania *(Nouakchott)*
Mauritius *(Port Louis)*
Mexico *(Mexico City, D.F.)*
Morocco *(Rabat)*
Mozambique *(Maputo)*
Nauru*
Nepal *(Kathmandu)*
Netherlands *(The Hague)*
New Zealand *(Wellington)*
Nicaragua *(Managua)*
Niger *(Niamey)*
Nigeria *(Lagos)*
Norway *(Oslo)*
Oman *(Muscat)*
Pakistan *(Islamabad)*
Panama *(Panama)*
Papua New Guinea *(Port Moresby)*
Paraguay *(Asuncion)*
Peru *(Lima)*
Philippines *(Manila)*
Poland *(Warsaw)*
Portugal *(Lisbon)*
Qatar *(Doha)*
Romania *(Bucharest)*
Rwanda *(Kigali)*
St. Christopher and Nevis*
St. Lucia*
St. Vincent and the Grenadines*
Sao Tome and Principe*
Saudi Arabia *(Jidda)*
Senegal *(Dakar)*
Seychelles *(Victoria)*
Sierra Leone *(Freetown)*
Singapore
Solomon Islands*
Somalia *(Mogadishu)*
South Africa *(Pretoria)*
Spain *(Madrid)*
Sri Lanka *(Colombo)*
Sudan *(Khartoum)*
Suriname *(Paramaribo)*
Swaziland *(Mbabane)*
Sweden *(Stockholm)*
Switzerland *(Bern)*
Syria *(Damascus)*
Tanzania *(Dar-es-Salaam)*
Thailand *(Bangkok)*
Togo *(Lome)*
Tonga*
Trinidad and Tobago *(Port-of-Spain)*
Tunisia *(Tunis)*
Turkey *(Ankara)*
Tuvalu*
Uganda *(Kampala)*
U.S.S.R. *(Moscow)*
United Arab Emirates *(Abu Dhabi)*
United Kingdom *(London)*
Uruguay *(Montevideo)*
Venezuela *(Caracas)*
Western Samoa*
Yemen Arab Republic *(Sanaa)*
Yugoslavia *(Belgrade)*
Zaire *(Kinshasa)*
Zambia *(Lusaka)*
Zimbabwe *(Harare)*

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* Countries to which United States has accredited ambassadors but where no physical mission exists.

Consular Facilities Outside Embassies**

Australia *(Melbourne, Brisbane, Sydney, Perth)*
Austria *(Salzburg)*
Belgium *(Antwerp)*
Brazil *(Rio de Janeiro, Sao Paulo, Porto Alegre, Recife, Salvador da Bahia)*
Cameroon *(Douala)*
Canada *(Calgary, Halifax, Montreal, Quebec, Toronto, Vancouver, Winnipeg)*
China *(Guangzhou, Shanghai, Shenyang)*
Colombia *(Barranquilla)*
Ecuador *(Guayaquil)*
Egypt *(Alexandria)*
France *(Bordeaux, Lyon, Marseille, Nice, Strasbourg, Martinique* [French Caribbean Department])
Germany, Federal Republic of *(Dusseldorf, Frankfurt, Hamburg, Munich, Stuttgart)*
Greece *(Thessaloniki)*
Hong Kong
India *(Bombay, Calcutta, Madras)*
Indonesia *(Medan, Surabaya)*
Italy *(Genoa, Milan, Naples, Palermo, Florence, Trieste, Turin)*
Japan *(Naha, Osaka-Kobe, Fukuoka, Sapporo)*
Jerusalem
Kenya *(Mombasa)*
Malawi *(Blantyre)*
Mexico *(Guadalajara, Hermosillo, Monterrey, Tijuana, Ciudad Juarez, Matamoros, Mazatlan, Merida, Nuevo Laredo)*
Morocco *(Casablanca, Tangier)*
Netherlands *(Amsterdam, Rotterdam)*
Netherlands Antilles *(Curacao)*
New Zealand *(Auckland)*
Nigeria *(Kaduna)*
Pakistan *(Karachi, Lahore, Peshawar)*
Philippines *(Cebu)*
Poland *(Krakow, Poznan)*
Portugal *(Oporto; Ponta Delgada, Azores)*
Saudi Arabia *(Dhahran, Riyadh)*
South Africa *(Cape Town, Durban, Johannesburg)*
Spain *(Barcelona, Seville, Bilbao)*
Switzerland *(Zurich, Geneva)*
Thailand *(Chiang Mai, Songkhla, Udorn)*
Turkey *(Istanbul, Izmir, Adana)*
U.S.S.R. *(Leningrad)*
United Kingdom *(Belfast, Edinburgh)*
Venezuela *(Maracaibo)*
Yugoslavia *(Zagreb)*
Zaire *(Lubumbashi, Bukavu)*

** Consulates general, consulates.

Appendix

Foreign Commercial Service Posts

Algeria *(Algiers)*
Antigua and Barbuda *(St. Johns)*
Argentina *(Buenos Aires)*
Australia *(Sydney, Brisbane, Canberra, Melbourne, Perth)*
Austria *(Vienna)*
Barbados *(Bridgetown)*
Belgium *(Brussels, Antwerp)*
Brazil *(Brasilia, Belem, Porto Alegre, Rio de Janeiro, Salvador da Bahia, Sao Paulo)*
Cameroon *(Yaounde, Douala)*
Canada *(Ottawa, Calgary, Halifax, Montreal, Toronto, Vancouver)*
Chile *(Santiago)*
China *(Beijing, Guangzhou, Shanghai)*
Colombia *(Bogota)*
Costa Rica *(San Jose)*
Denmark *(Copenhagen)*
Dominican Republic *(Santo Domingo)*
Ecuador *(Quito, Guayaquil)*
Egypt *(Cairo, Alexandria)*
Finland *(Helsinki)*
France *(Paris, Bordeaux, Lyon, Marseille, Nice, Strasbourg)*
Germany, Federal Republic of *(Bonn, West Berlin, Dusseldorf, Frankfurt, Hamburg, Munich, Stuttgart)*
Greece *(Athens, Thessaloniki)*
Guatemala *(Guatemala City)*
Honduras *(Tegucigalpa)*
Hong Kong
Hungary *(Budapest)*
India *(New Delhi, Bombay, Calcutta, Madras)*
Indonesia *(Jakarta)*
Iraq *(Baghdad)*
Israel *(Tel Aviv)*
Italy *(Rome, Florence, Genoa, Milan, Naples, Palermo)*
Ivory Coast *(Abidjan)*
Jamaica *(Kingston)*
Japan *(Tokyo, Fukuoka, Osaka-Kobe, Sapporo)*
Kenya *(Nairobi)*
South Korea *(Seoul)*
Kuwait *(Kuwait)*
Malaysia *(Kuala Lumpur)*
Mexico *(Mexico City, D.F., Monterrey, Guadalajara)*
Morocco *(Rabat, Casablanca)*
Netherlands *(The Hague, Amsterdam, Rotterdam)*
New Zealand *(Wellington, Auckland)*
Nigeria *(Lagos, Kaduna)*
Norway *(Oslo)*
Pakistan *(Karachi, Lahore)*
Panama *(Panama)*
Peru *(Lima)*
Philippines *(Manila)*
Poland *(Warsaw)*
Portugal *(Lisbon, Oporto)*
Romania *(Bucharest)*
Saudi Arabia *(Jidda, Dhahran, Riyadh)*
Singapore
South Africa *(Johannesburg, Cape Town)*
Spain *(Madrid, Barcelona)*
Sweden *(Stockholm)*
Switzerland *(Bern, Zurich)*
Thailand *(Bangkok)*
Trinidad and Tobago *(Port-of-Spain)*
Turkey *(Ankara, Istanbul)*
United Arab Emirates *(Abu Dhabi, Dubai)*
United Kingdom *(London)*
U.S.S.R. *(Moscow)*
Uruguay *(Montevideo)*
Venezuela *(Caracas)*
Yugoslavia *(Belgrade, Zagreb)*

Foreign Agricultural Service Posts

Algeria *(Algiers)*
Argentina *(Buenos Aires)*
Australia *(Canberra)*
Austria *(Vienna)*
Bahrain *(Manama)*
Bangladesh *(Dhaka)*
Belgium *(Brussels)*
Brazil *(Brasilia, Rio de Janeiro, Sao Paulo)*
Canada *(Ottawa)*
Chile *(Santiago)*
China *(Beijing, Guangzhou)*
Colombia *(Bogota)*
Costa Rica *(San Jose)*
Denmark *(Copenhagen)*
Dominican Republic *(Santo Domingo)*
Ecuador *(Quito)*
Egypt *(Cairo)*
France *(Paris)*
German Democratic Republic *(Berlin)*
Germany, Federal Republic of *(Bonn, Hamburg)*
Greece *(Athens)*
Guatemala *(Guatemala City)*
Hong Kong
India *(New Delhi)*
Indonesia *(Jakarta)*
Iraq *(Baghdad)*
Italy *(Rome, Milan)*
Ivory Coast *(Abidjan)*
Japan *(Tokyo)*
Kenya *(Nairobi)*
South Korea *(Seoul)*
Malaysia *(Kuala Lumpur)*
Mexico *(Mexico City, D.F.)*
Morocco *(Rabat)*
Netherlands *(The Hague)*
New Zealand *(Wellington)*
Nigeria *(Lagos)*
Pakistan *(Islamabad)*
Peru *(Lima)*
Philippines *(Manila)*
Poland *(Warsaw)*
Portugal *(Lisbon)*
Romania *(Bucharest)*
Saudi Arabia *(Jidda)*
Singapore
South Africa *(Pretoria)*
Spain *(Madrid)*
Sweden *(Stockholm)*
Switzerland *(Bern)*
Syria *(Damascus)*
Thailand *(Bangkok)*
Turkey *(Ankara, Istanbul)*
U.S.S.R. *(Moscow)*
United Kingdom *(London)*
U.S. Mission to the European Communities *(Brussels)*
U.S. Mission to the UN Food and Agriculture Organization *(Rome)*
U.S. Mission to the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development *(Paris)*
Venezuela *(Caracas)*
Yugoslavia *(Belgrade)*

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